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THE PRESENCE AND RELATIONSHIP OF TRANSACTIONAL
AND VISIONARY LEADERSHIP IN AMATEUR SPORT
CHIEF EXECUTIVE OFFICERS AND PRESIDENTS

by

© Sharon Ann Squire

A Thesis
submitted to the
Faculty of Graduate Studies and Research
through the Department of
Kinesiology in Partial Fulfillment of the
requirements for the Degree of
Master of Human Kinetics at
the University of Windsor

Windsor, Ontario, Canada

1989

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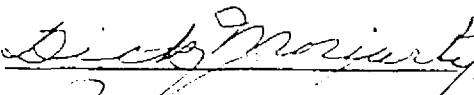
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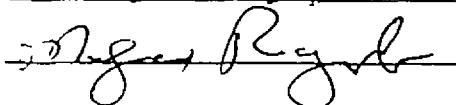
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ABSTRACT

THE PRESENCE AND RELATIONSHIP OF TRANSACTIONAL AND VISIONARY LEADERSHIP IN AMATEUR SPORT CHIEF EXECUTIVE OFFICERS AND PRESIDENTS

By Sharon Ann Squire

The purpose of this study was to examine the variables relevant to the presence and characteristics of transactional and visionary leadership in National Sport Organization Presidents and Chief Executive Officers. Furthermore, the relationship between role group (paid CEO, volunteer President), job classification (Executive Director, Director General), sport classification (Category 1-4) and other categorical variables (age, sex, olympic sport, and experience) and the presence of transactional and visionary leadership was reviewed. The answer to this query was recognized as having implications for the pre-service and in-service training of professional and volunteer Presidents and CEOs, and in the periodic evaluation of their performance.

Bennis (1984), Sashkin (1987) and Tichy and Devanna (1986) have suggested that in the current economic climate, a new type of leadership is required at the senior management level. The new leaders must transform organizations. The leaders must have an ability to help the organization develop a vision of what it can be, to mobilize the organization to accept and become committed to achieve the vision and to institutionalize these changes over time.

A response rate of 86 percent from the CEO sample and 69 percent from the President sample was received. A demographic profile of the Presidents and CEOs was developed. This profile was consistent with the findings of earlier studies. Sixty percent of the respondents exhibited "average" visionary leadership scores, thirty-three percent "high" visionary leadership scores, and three percent exhibited "excellent" visionary leadership scores.

Role Group, Sport Classification, Sex and Olympic Sport Classification did affect the Visionary Leadership Indices and Key

scores, but did not significantly affect the Visionary Total score.

Role Group, Sport Classification, Sex and Olympic Sport Classification did not affect the Transactional Leadership Indices and Key scores.

Job Classification affected the Visionary Leadership Indices and Key Scores. The Director Generals scored higher than the Executive Directors on several indices and the Visionary Total Key. This finding lends support to Sport Canada's development of the Director General portfolio.

Education and age affected several of the Visionary and Transactional Leadership Indices and Key scores, but did not significantly affect the Transactional and Visionary Total Key Scores. Years of experience did not affect the Transactional or the Visionary Leadership scores.

Regression analysis identified several predictor variables for the Visionary Culture and Behaviour Keys. None were found for the Total Visionary Key.

Burns (1978) hypothesis that visionary and transactional leadership are located on opposite ends of the continuum, was rejected.

The qualitative interviews which were conducted, supported the quantitative findings. The interview respondents believed that it was both desirable and possible to have a visionary leader in the NSO environment.

Support was found for the Visionary Leadership Framework. There was generally acceptable correlations among the indices and keys.

Implications of the study were listed. Several suggestions for future research were cited.

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I would like to thank my committee members for their valuable assistance, and particularly my chairman, Dr. Richard Moriarty, for his guidance and inspiration.

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CONTENTS

ABSTRACT	iv
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS	vi
LIST OF TABLES	ix
LIST OF FIGURES	xi

<u>CHAPTER</u>	<u>Page</u>
1. THE PROBLEM AND ITS BACKGROUND	1
Importance of Study	7
Definitions	12
Statement of Problem/Hypotheses	15
Limitations of the Study	18
2. REVIEW OF LITERATURE	21
Measurement of Leader Behaviours	21
Transactional and Visionary Leadership	24
Visionary Leadership Framework	26
The Leadership Behaviour Questionnaire	34
National Sport Organizations	58
3. RESEARCH DESIGN	82
Population and Sample	82
Data Collection Procedure	83
Instrumentation	84
Statistical Procedure	96
Interview Methodology	102
4. RESULTS	105
Description of Subjects	105
Results of Hypothesis One	114
Results of Hypothesis Two	118
Results of Hypothesis Three	122
Results of Hypothesis Four	125
Results of Categorical Variables	128
Regression Analysis	135
Reliability Analysis	136
Interview Summary	140
5. SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS	146
Summary	146
Conclusions	150
Results Analysis	150
Limitations	159

Implications of the Study	160
Recommendations for Future Research	163
LIST OF APPENDICES	165
Sport Canada Sport Recognition Classification System	166
Letters of Permission	174
Instrumentation and Reminder Letters	176
LBQ Evaluation Key (1985 and 1988 Editions)	185
Interview Questionnaire	189
LBQ Norms	192
BIBLIOGRAPHY	196
VITA AUCTORIS	208

LIST OF TABLES

<u>TABLE</u>	<u>Page</u>
1. Leadership Behaviour Questionnaire Norms	92
2. LBQ Reliability Coefficients	94
3. Interpreting the Size of a Correlation Coefficient .	98
4. Sex Distribution of Subjects	106
5. Age Distribution of Subjects	108
6. Role Distribution of Subjects	106
7. Educational Distribution of Subjects	106
8. Hours Worked by Subjects	109
9. Experience by Subjects	109
10. Olympic Sport by Subjects	109
11. Sport Classification by Subjects	111
12. How Sport is Run	111
13. Mean Scores and Standard Deviations for the Dependent Variables	113
14. Evaluation of Visionary and Transactional Leadership Keys	114
15. Mean Scores and Standard Deviations for Hypothesis One; Tests for Between Group Differences	116
16. Correlations Between Transactional, Task, and Relation Keys and Visionary Keys	119
17. Mean Scores and Standard Deviations of Hypothesis Two; Tests for Between Group Differences	121
18. Mean Scores and Standard Deviations of Hypothesis Three; Tests for Between Group Differences	123
19. Mean Scores and Standard Deviations of Hypothesis Four; Tests for Between Group Differences	127
20. Mean Scores and Standard Deviations for Olympic Classification; Tests for Between Group Differences.	130

21.	Correlations Between Education and LBQ Scores . . .	131
22.	Correlations Between Age and LBQ Scores	134
23.	Inter-Index Correlations - Transaction Keys and Indices	138
24.	Inter-Index Correlations - Visionary Keys and Indices	139
25.	Summary of Hypotheses and Decisions	148

LIST OF FIGURES

<u>FIGURE</u>		<u>Page</u>
1.	Operational Model	16
2.	Transformational Leadership	27
3.	Visionary Leadership Framework	29
4.	Parson's Action Framework	31
5.	Vision Content Themes in Parson's Action Framework .	56
6.	An Outline of Selected Components of NSO's	60



CHAPTER ONE

THE PROBLEM AND ITS BACKGROUND

Leadership research and theory has traditionally focused on the leader-follower relationship, either dyadically or in the context of a small group, rather than on organizational behaviour. Sashkin and Fulmer (1986) have suggested that the study of leadership from an organizational perspective has been neglected in favour of research on supervisory management, or the role of middle and lower level managers in the organizational hierarchy. Katz and Kahn (1966, 1978) have referred to leadership activities at this level as "interpolation" or adding to and interpreting structures and policies developed at the top, and as "administration" or operating within defined structures and carrying out policy. Individuals fulfilling the interpolation and administration roles have been termed Transactional (Burns 1978, Bass 1985, and Tichy and Ulrich 1984) or Operational Leaders (Sashkin and Fulmer 1985).

Bennis (1984) and Tichy and Devanna (1986) have suggested that in the current economic climate, a new type of leadership is required at the middle and senior management levels. The new leaders must transform organizations. The executive leader must have an ability to help the organization develop a vision of what it can be, to mobilize the organization to accept and become committed to achieve the vision and to institutionalize these

changes over time. Bennis and Nanus (1985) have directly equated effective leadership with a powerful vision.

Leadership is the pivotal force behind successful organizations and that to create vital and viable organizations, leadership is necessary to help organizations develop a new vision of what they can be, and mobilize the organization toward the new vision.

(Bennis and Nanus, 1985: 2-3)

Transactional or Operational Leaders make only minor adjustments in the organization's mission, structure and human resource management. On the other hand, Transformational or Visionary Leaders, evoke changes in the organization's culture, or set of values and beliefs, through the development and implementation of a vision. Visionary leadership (Sashkin, 1986(b)) is based upon the Lewinian paradigm that behaviour is a function of the person and the situation. Visionary leaders have the cognitive ability to create visions; visions must be expressed, explained, extended, and expanded. Visionary leaders must understand the key situational characteristics or vision elements: change, goals, and people, that must be incorporated into their visions. Visionary leaders are also behaviourally capable of carrying out the actions needed to turn visions into reality. Visioning actions include the development of a philosophy, policies and programs and personal behaviour. Bennis (1984) believes that visionary leadership is the factor that empowers the work force and ultimately makes the difference between winning and losing organizations.

Bennis (1984), in a observational examination of ninety chief

executive officers, in the public and corporate sector, found that one of the key problems facing organizations in American society is that they are underlead and overmanaged.

Jamieson (1987) has suggested that further research is needed in order to gain greater understanding of the leadership requirements in the sport management profession. Paton (1987) and Peters and Waterman (1982) agree that a theoretical base must be maintained and fostered, but believe that the knowledge produced must be sensible, practical and useful.

The Canadian National Sport Organizations are undergoing rapid changes. The funding structure and funding support systems are being altered, the organizational structure of many organizations are being revised to the corporate model, and others are still in the early stages of an organizational life cycle. The reports of Goldfarb Consultants (1986), requisitioned by the Canadian Olympic Association, and Donald McIntosh of Queens University have noted the current climate of change and emphasized the need for strong and consistent leadership at the national level. The hard or transactional issues received only minimal attention in these reports.

This does not mean that the focus of future research should revert to the managership versus leadership issue. Rather the parameters and characteristics of Visionary or Transformational Leadership should be more closely examined in various populations. This study purposes to examine the relationship of the transactional and visionary/transformational leadership behaviours

of (1) Chief Executive Officers and (2) Presidents of National Sport Organizations (NSO's). For the purposes of this paper, the term Chief Executive Officer (CEO) will denote the most senior professional staff position within the NSO; and the President, the highest ranking volunteer, elected NSO official.

Martinko and Gardner (1977) have concluded that the behaviours and work characteristics of public managers differ markedly from business managers. The results of the observational studies of business managers did not generalize well to the educational managers.

Several studies have been conducted to date comparing transactional and visionary leadership. Valley (1987) has studied the effects of visionary leadership and the growth in the Seventh-Day Adventist Church, Sashkin (1986 (a),(b)) and Sashkin and Fulmer (1985) have conducted several studies on visionary leadership in various types of corporations. Additional studies include: Major (1987) in California schools, Stoner-Zemel (1987) in two large American manufacturing plants, and Sanchez (1987) in a national volunteer organization with local chapters. To date, however, no study has been conducted in the amateur sport milieu.

Several studies have examined leadership behaviour, but have utilized the Leadership Behaviour Description Questionnaire, and examined only the factors related to Transactional or Operational Leadership (initiating structure and consideration). One such study which focused on the sport milieu is the 1988 dissertation by MacDonald on the "Relationship of Job Satisfaction of Amateur

Chief Executive Officers to Leadership Behaviour and Other Selected Variables". Others have focused solely on subordinate evaluation assessment whose result could have been confounded by McElroy's Time Lag Theory (1982). McElroy believes that much of the traditional leadership research fails to account for the time lag necessary for a change in behaviour to show up in a measurable form. This is particularly true in executive positions where the time span of discretion may be quite long.

Parkhouse (1987) has suggested that theory and research specific to sport management is virtually non-existent. Applin (1986) believes that the field of sports management is in an embryonic state and is almost entirely devoid of research content. Paton (1987) has suggested that researchers must turn their research attention to other populations including professional and amateur sport organizations.

Baker and Collins (1983) have concluded that approximately ten per cent of completed thesis research in sport and physical education has been in the field of administration and management. However, the majority of this research has been weighted toward educational institutions, and in particular, post secondary institutions.

Otto Jelinek (1987), then Minister of State for Fitness and Amateur Sport, in an address to the Annual General Meeting of the Canadian Olympic Association, called for greater attention to the vision for Canadian sport-post 1988. To this end, Minister Jelinek appointed a National Advisory Task Force on Amateur Sport in the

1990's and suggested that the time has come for the initiation of a leadership forum for the partners involved in the administration of amateur sport in Canada.

If we do not move now, I fear that the people with vision and energy may become despondent and be lost to us.

(Jelinek, April 26, 1987: 11)

Sport Canada has also recognized the need for visioning and planning. In an address to the 1988 Sport Federation of Canada's President's Forum, Abby Hoffman, Director General of Sport Canada, indicated that during 1988-92, the nature of sport leadership will change. Transformational leaders with vision, change management skills and knowledge of planning and evaluation will emerge. Hoffman also noted a trend to growth in the professional cadre in sport. Lyle Makosky, Assistant Deputy Minister and member of the National Advisory Task Force on Amateur Sport has indicated that the sport leadership ranks are weak and strong leaders are required.

Jean Charest, Minister of Fitness and Amateur Sport, in the introduction to the 1988 Task Force Report, Toward 2000: Building Canada's Sport System, has further emphasized the importance of strong leaders with vision.

...The current period is filled with events that signal dynamic changes are occurring in the very character of sport. Leaders in the sport community are calling for a "vision" of the next stage of development, a vision that will address not only the purpose and values of sport, but also the directions and system we will need to take us into the period ahead.

(Task Force, 1988: 3)

~

Bass (1985) has called on academicians to overcome the parochialism focused on empirical leadership which examines the easier to study Transactional or Operational Leadership. Furthermore, Bass has suggested that instrumentation should be developed to select potential leaders, as current predictive tests primarily assess Transactional Leadership. Sashkin and Fulmer (1986) and Sashkin (1987(a)) believe that the leadership challenge is to identify a limited number of variables in each of the three functions: (1) person, (2) situation, and (3) behaviour, to explain a maximum degree of variance in Visionary Leadership effectiveness. In a period of change such as those occurring in the National Sport Organizations, the guidance of a visionary leader is essential.

Importance of Study

Bass (1985) and Sashkin (1986 (a),(b)) and Sashkin (1987 (a),(c)) have developed instrumentation to assess Transformational or Visionary Leadership and Transactional or Operational Leadership. Bennis (1984), Tichy and Devanna (1986), and Sashkin and Fulmer (1986) believe that Visionary or Transformational Leadership is a behavioural process and can be learned. As such, the determination of the presence of, relationship between Transactional and Visionary Leadership, the strength of these characteristics, the relationship between the CEO's and President's scores, and an examination of the variables of organizational classification and job classification, will be of value in the

selection and training of organizational leaders. As a result of this study, standards could be developed which could serve as a guide for employee selection, training, situational diagnosis and subsequent performance review. It is not the intent of this thesis to fully develop these standards, but this study is deemed to be the first step in the development of such standards.

Sashkin (1987(a)) believes that visionary leadership training should be divided into three areas: (1) personal characteristics and cognitive skills, (2) understanding the nature of vision (situation), and (3) putting the vision into action (behaviour). Thus the Leadership Behaviour Questionnaire provides a framework for leaders to understand organizational leadership theory and provides the tools needed to effectively exercise visionary leadership training.

Zeigler (1977) has advocated that professional development in the workplace is a requirement. Zeigler (1987) has suggested that most professionals in the field of sport administration are only dimly aware of the scientific and ethical developments that have occurred in this field.

Parkhouse (1987), Zeigler (1987) and others have purported that greater attention must be placed on the professional preparation and professional development of sport managers or administrators. Empirical evidence (Parks and Quain, 1986), which although not conclusive, has further challenged the effectiveness of existing programs in meeting sport management job related needs. (Parkhouse, 1987)

The 1988 Task Force Report, Toward 2000: Building Canada's Sport System, has criticized the sport leadership programs (for both volunteers and professional staff) in Canada as "inadequate for the development of the required quality of leaders." (Task Force, 1988: 22) The Report further recommends that significant attention must be paid in the near future to upgrading the existing programs or developing new programs for the training of professional and volunteer leaders which would enhance the substantive quality of sport leadership. (Task Force, 1988: 22) Thus, a research base must be developed upon which visionary leadership training programs could be based.

Parkhouse (1987) and others have criticized the academic preparation programs in sport management and administration, particularly due to the lack of specialty tracks. Parkhouse and Ulrich (1979) identified the lack of empirical data regarding the requisite skills that potential sport administrators should acquire for effective job performance. The work of Wrenn, Bretting and Hatfield (1987) supports this thesis. Wrenn, Bretting and Hatfield (1987) compared the perceived importance of job responsibilities, demographic information and education recommendations of athletic directors of the NCAA Division 1 football programs and general managers from within professional sport and found significant contrasts between the groups in all areas of job responsibilities and education. Thus, it is paramount to examine the nature of factors which are specific to the National Sport Organizations.

This study will also examine the specific CEO role and sport classification, to determine if the presence and nature of visionary leadership is consistent among NSO's.

Finally, this study will examine the role of the Chief Executive Officers and Presidents in National Sport Organizations. An examination of this process could allow NSO's to develop better organizational leadership matches and assist the national sport organization in staff selection. The CEO-President match is integral to the effective leadership of an NSO.

Slack and Hinings (1987) have indicated that National Sport Organizations have shown a variety of organizational forms. While they noted a trend towards professionalism and bureaucratization, few organizations were fully developed professional bureaucracies. Slack and Hinings (1987) also noted that the greatest source of conflict within the organization was between the professional staff and volunteer Board regarding decision making and authority. One half of Slack and Hinings (1987) sample reported high to moderate conflict between the professional staff and volunteers in this area.

The very process of visioning requires a match between the CEO and President. An organizational visioning process must be initiated from the top down. Firstly, the top organizational leaders must design an organizational philosophy that clearly expresses the leader's vision. Second, although initiated at the top, middle managers design and implement programs that promote policies derived from organizational philosophy. (Sashkin 1987a)

Third, visionary leaders must engage in behaviours congruent with their vision.

The work of Block (1987) supports the thesis of Sashkin (1987(a)) and Slack and Hinings (1987) that the impetus for a change program (a prerequisite for visioning) must start at the top and be fully supported by the top management.

Burns (1978) believes that visionary/transformational and transactional leaders are situated on opposite ends of the continuum. Sashkin (1987(a)) and Bass (1985) reject this hypothesis and have suggested that leaders exhibit both transactional and visionary/transformational leadership in different amounts and/or intensities.

As the 1988 Task Force Report identifies the NSO's as the key agencies in the Canadian Sport System, a basic tenet of this position is the need to strengthen these NSO's and their personnel to the point where they have the capacity to provide the needed leadership.

Thus, the examination of visionary and transactional leadership of the CEO's and Presidents will be of practical and theoretical value in determining the presence and characteristics of these forms of leadership.

In practice, a basis of information will be developed about the leadership characteristics of CEO's and Presidents, in varying role, job and sport classifications. Upon this database standards for professional development training, employee selection, and performance appraisals could be developed. The nature of the job

and sport classification and CEO/President matches within the NSO environment will also be determined. A body of knowledge specific to the NSO environment will also be developed. Finally, from a theoretical perspective, this study will examine the validity of Burns' (1978) hypothesis that transactional and visionary leaders are situated on opposite ends of the continuum.

DEFINITIONS

Transactional Leadership

Transactional or Operational Leaders motivate followers by exchanging rewards for services rendered. (Burns, 1978) Transactional Leaders work within the organization's culture and make only minor adjustments in the organization's mission, structure and human resource management. Operational Leaders implement the programs and policies developed by the executive leaders. (Sashkin and Fulmer, 1986)

Visionary Leadership

Visionary or Transformational Leaders create the organization's culture, or set of shared values, beliefs and norms, that guide the organization. (Sashkin, 1986a) The Visionary Leader creates a vision for the organization, mobilizes the organization to accept and work towards achieving the new vision, and to institutionalize the changes over time. Tichy and Ulrich (1984) Bennis and Nanus (1985) and Sashkin (1985) have suggested that: (1) focused leadership, communication leadership, trust leadership, respectful leadership and risk leadership are characteristics of visionary leadership behaviours; (2) bottom-line leadership, empowered

leadership, and long-term leadership are personal characteristics of visionary leadership; and (3) organizational leadership and cultural leadership are situational characteristics of visionary leadership. For the purposes of this study, Visionary leadership will be defined by the parameters of the LBQ; 1986 and 1988 editions.

Chief Executive Officer

The Chief Executive Officer is the individual responsible for the introduction of policy and authorization of all activities and undertakings of the National Sport Organization. This individual may be a Director General, or Executive or Managing Director, or Technical Director, dependent upon the organizational structure of the National Sport Organization. The CEO is the most senior professional staff position within the NSO.

President

The President of an NSO is the highest ranking elected volunteer official of the association. The President is generally a member of the NSO Board of Directors and Executive.

Canadian Sport and Fitness Administration Centre

The Canadian Sport and Fitness Administration Centre (CSFAC) is a non-profit organization incorporated under Part II of the Companies Act, which provides administrative and consultative services to ninety national associations and projects, sixty-six of which are located at the National Sport and Recreation complex. The CSFAC is funded by Fitness and Amateur Sport and the client NSO's. The CSFAC has no direct authority over associations, and is directed

by a ten person Board of Directors. The CSFAC was formerly called the National Sport and Recreation Centre (NSRC). (National Sport and Recreation Centre)

National Sport Organizations

National Sport Organizations (NSO's) operate as the sole sanctioning body of a particular sport. National Sport Organizations are recognized by Sport Canada upon the fulfilment of the required levels of high performance and domestic activities as delineated in the Sport Recognition System Policy. (Sport Canada Core Contribution Guidelines 1987-88)

Sport Canada

Sport Canada is the federal government agency responsible for the accomplishment of the goals set out in the Fitness and Amateur Sport Act. (Sport Canada: The Women in Sport Program)

Sport Recognition Classification System

The Sport Recognition System is a method of ranking the National Sport Organizations based upon objective standards for both high performance sport and domestic sport. The Sport Recognition System also articulates the minimum standards a national sport organization must meet in order to be recognized by Sport Canada. Recognition levels are related to funding. (Sport Canada Core Contribution Guidelines 1987-88)

Categorical Variable

Categorical variables include pre-existing differences including sex, education, age, years of experience (Nelson, 1985: 17), and number of hours per week involved in the NSO.

STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM/HYPOTHESES

The Visionary and Transactional Leadership models, as defined by Sashkin and Fulmer (1985, 1986), posit that leadership behaviour (visionary actions) is a function of the person (or visioning ability), and the situation (or vision elements).

The purpose of this study is to investigate the presence and characteristics of Visionary and Transactional Leadership of National Sport Organization Chief Executive Officers and Presidents. The study will examine whether:

- (1) there is a difference in the visionary and transactional leadership scores of the Chief Executive Officers (C.E.O's) and Presidents of National Sport Organization's (N.S.O.'s);
- (2) there is a difference in visionary leadership scores based upon the job classification of the C.E.O., either Director General or Executive Director;
- (3) there is a difference between sport classification system placement and the visionary leadership scores of the C.E.O's and Presidents; and
- (4) there is a difference between other categorical variables (eg. sex) and the visionary leadership scores of the C.E.O's and Presidents.

A model of this study is cited in Figure 1. Indices 7-10 refer to Transactional Leadership and indices 1-6 (1986 edition) and 11-15 (1988 edition) refer to Visionary Leadership. Index 6 has been excluded from the 1988 version of the LBQ.

FIGURE 1 - OPERATIONAL MODEL

INDICES	CEO/PRES. ROLE	SPORT CLASSIFICATION	JOB CLASSIFICATION	SEX
1. FOCUSED LDSHIP				
2. COMMUNICATION LEADERSHIP				
3. TRUST LEADERSHIP				
4. RESPECTFUL LDSHIP				
5. RISK LEADERSHIP				
6. FOLLOWER-CENTERED				
7. SUPPORTIVE MANAGEMENT				
8. GOAL ORIENTED MANAGEMENT				
9. TASK CENTERED MANAGEMENT				
10. TEAM MANAGEMENT				
11. BOTTOM-LINE LEADERSHIP				
12. EMPOWERED LDSHIP				
13. LONG TERM LDSHIP				
14. ORGANIZATIONAL LEADERSHIP				
15. CULTURAL LDSHIP				
TRANSACTIONAL				
VIS 88A				
VIS 88B				
VIS 88C				
VIS 88D				

Hypotheses

The following are the hypotheses for this study.

Hypothesis One

Ho1= There will be no significant difference in the Transactional and Visionary Leadership scores of the N.S.O. Presidents and C.E.O's (role) as measured by the L.B.Q.

Ha1= There will be a significant difference in the Transactional and Visionary Leadership scores of the N.S.O. Presidents and C.E.O's (role) as measured by the L.B.Q.

Hypothesis Two

Ho2= There will be no significant difference in the Visionary Leadership scores of the Director Generals and Executive Directors (job classification) as measured by the L.B.Q.

Ha2= There will be a significant difference in the Visionary Leadership scores of the Director Generals and Executive Directors (job classification) as measured by the L.B.Q.

Hypothesis Three

Ho3= There will be no significant difference in the Visionary Leadership scores of the C.E.O's and the Presidents and the N.S.O. sport recognition system classification as measured by the LBQ.

Ha3= There will be a significant difference in the Visionary Leadership scores of the C.E.O.'s and the Presidents and the N.S.O sport recognition system classification as measured by the LBQ.

Hypothesis Four

Ho4= There will be no significant difference in the Visionary and Transactional Leadership scores and the sex of the C.E.O's and Presidents as measured by the LBQ.

Ha4= There will be a significant difference in the Visionary and Transactional Leadership scores and the sex of the C.E.O.'s and Presidents as measured by the LBQ.

Delimitations of the Study

The researcher has chosen the following delimitations which include:

1. The study is restricted to the professional staff and presidents of the National Sport Organizations.
2. The study is restricted to the single sport, National Sport Organizations who are recognized by Sport Canada's Sport Recognition System and NSO's which at the time of the study, had a CEO in their employ. (At the time of the circulation of the survey instrument five of the CEO positions were vacant or the CEO had been employed by the NSO for less than one month.)
3. The study is restricted to the National Sport Organizations which are resident in the Canadian Sport and Fitness Administration Centre (CSFAC).

Limitations of the Study

The researcher acknowledges the following limitations.

1. The utilization of research and the literature on leader behaviours in the role of Canadian sport administrators is relatively new. Several studies (Weese, 1983) and MacMillan (1981) have examined the leadership role of coaches. Macdonald (1988) examined the transactional leadership behaviours (initiating structure and consideration) of the NSO CEO, but did not examine the role of the NSO President or visionary leadership. Thus

the study was limited by the absence of a precedence to serve as a guide.

2. The survey recipients may be reluctant to accurately describe their own behaviour, personality and style.
3. Bass (1985) has suggested that certain environments are more conducive to charismatic or visionary leadership; there are no controls for this factor.
4. The LBQ surveys a sample of specific leader behaviours to make an assessment of the leader's effectiveness. The totality of behaviours are not covered; however, this is true for any instrument which measures behaviours and attitudes.
5. As Sport Canada contributes to a percentage of each NSO's income, Sport Canada is influential in affecting the direction and mandate of the NSO's. This financial influence has decreased over the past several years, from a figure of seventy percent of the NSO's total operating budget in 1986 to fifty-five percent in 1988. However, despite the increased marketing and fund-raising initiatives of the NSO's, the influence of Sport Canada remains pronounced, particularly in the areas of elite athlete and coach development. (The influence on and the percentage of NSO operating budgets funded by Sport Canada varies greatly between NSO's, with the larger and higher profile NSO's receiving greater sponsorship dollars.) Sport Canada also requires that NSO's

complete quadrennial or long range plans which must include administrative, technical and financial components.

Jean Charest, Minister of Fitness and Amateur Sport, in the introduction to the 1988 Task Force Report has suggested that the NSO's should take increased ownership for the direction of their sport.

...in particular, NSO's should participate more fully in a continuing way in defining and implementing the future of Sport Canada. The NSO's are sophisticated agencies and should be vitally involved not only in the destiny of their own sport, but in shaping the destiny of sport in general.

(Task Force, 1988: 8)

Thus, although Sport Canada has a definite influence on the NSO's, which may affect the visioning potential of some CEO's and Presidents, it is suggested that Sport Canada's greatest sphere of influence is in the technical programming area. Several other multi-sport agencies (eg. Canadian Olympic Association and the Coaching Association of Canada) also have an influence on the NSO's technical programs, but to a much lesser extent. (Figure 6 illustrates the external influences on the NSO's.) No studies have been conducted which have delineated the extent of the influence of Sport Canada on the NSO.

CHAPTER TWO

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

The review of literature will be divided into four sections: (1) the measurement of leader behaviours; (2) transactional and visionary leadership; (3) the Leader Behaviour Questionnaire; and (4) the National Sport Organizations.

The Measurement of Leader Behaviours

Kavanagh (1978) has suggested that the effective measurement of leader behaviour has many practical applications. A measurement scale would provide an assessment of current leader practices and in relation to other diagnostic information, provide guidelines for organizational change and training. (Valley, 1987)

Historically, the study of leadership has progressed through three stages and periods: (1) the trait period, from around 1910 to World War II; (2) the behaviour period, from the onset of World War II to the late 1960's; and (3) the contingency and transactional period, from the late 1960's to present. (Chemers, 1984) Hunt (1984) has claimed that a fourth period is emerging, the "period of threats to the contingency and transactional paradigms". Initially, the Trait or Great Man Approach attempted to identify the traits which distinguished leaders from non-leaders or followers, and effective leaders from ineffective leaders. While many articles have dismissed the trait approach to leadership as

overly simplistic (this was in part due to Stogdill's 1948 review of Trait Research), a few traits (ie. intelligence, dominance, and self-confidence) have consistently been found to be related to leadership. (House and Baetz, 1979)

As the Trait Approach appeared to be not successful in revealing a set of universal leadership traits and with the growing emphasis on behaviorism in psychology, the focus shifted to the Behavioural Approach and a desire to differentiate leaders by what they did rather than by what they were. (McElroy, 1982) The Behavioural Approach, exemplified by the University of Michigan and Ohio State University studies, focused on styles of leadership, specifically consideration, and initiating structure. (Chemers, 1984) Five widely used measures of leader behaviour and attitudes towards leaders have resulted from the Ohio State studies:

- (1) Leader Behaviour Description Questionnaire (LBQ);
 - (2) Leader Behaviour Description Questionnaire, Form 12 (LBDQ-12);
 - (3) Supervisory Leader Behaviour Description Questionnaire (SLBDQ);
 - (4) Ideal Leader Behaviour Description Questionnaire (ILBDQ); and
 - (5) Leadership Opinion Questionnaire (LOQ).
- (Valley, 1987)

However, attempts to relate the behavioural factors to group and organizational outcomes proved quite difficult.

Valley (1987), Sashkin and Fulmer (1986) and Sashkin (1987a) have suggested that the instrumentation cited above is inadequate. The focus of the instrumentation was on behaviour and a limited number of variables and did not include the person, situation and behaviour of the leader.

During both the Trait and Behavioural Eras, researchers attempted to seek the "best" style of leadership, applicable to all situations and environments. Thus Contingency Approaches (ie. Fiedler, House (path-goal)), a means of integrating leader qualities and situational demands to leadership effectiveness, and the Transactional Approach, which considers the social exchange between the leader and followers, (Hollander, 1986) emerged.

Although the Contingency and Transactional Paradigms have been the dominant approach since the late 1960's, there has been an increasing number of questions raised regarding the accuracy of these paradigms. (Hunt, 1984) Many have argued that these paradigms are myopic or too narrow. Mintzberg (1982), Sashkin and Fulmer (1985), and others have argued that research should consider and differentiate between supervisory and executive management. The job of a leader/manager in an organization is broader, more complex and dynamic than that suggested in the Contingency Model. The Contingency Model does not predict work group or individual worker outcomes very well; and Hunt et al. (1985) believe that less than ten percent of the variance in outcomes such as performance is accounted for by the traditional contingency paradigm. (Hunt, 1984) McElroy (1982) has also criticized contingency model research due to overemphasis on leader-subordinate relations.

Based upon the work of McGregor Burns (1978), Bennis and Nanus (1985), McClelland (1976, 1982), Jaques (1979, 1985, 1986), Sashkin and Fulmer (1985, 1986), the Ohio State Studies (Stogdill and Coons, 1957), and the University of Michigan's Institute for Social

Research (Bowers and Seashore, 1966), Sashkin (1986) has developed a new framework for understanding the leadership phenomenon, namely, the Leader Behaviour Questionnaire (LBQ). This instrument was further refined by Sashkin in 1987 and 1988 to consider the organizational culture and personal dimensions of visionary leadership.

Transactional and Visionary Leadership

The concept of transformational and visionary leadership, as it relates to business organizations is a relatively new phenomenon. (Hunt, 1984) The works of Burns (1978) and House (1977) are among the first identified in this area.

Burns (1978) has suggested that the transactional leader motivates followers by exchanging rewards for services rendered. The transactional leader pursues a cost-benefit, economic exchange to meet the subordinates' current material and psychic needs in return for contracted services rendered by the subordinate. (Bass, 1985) Tichy and Ulrich (1984) have proposed that transactional leaders make only minor adjustments in the organization's mission, structure, and human resource management. Katz and Kahn (1966) have referred to leadership activities at the operational level as "interpolation" or adding to and interpreting structures and policies developed at the top, and as "administration", or

operating within defined structures and carrying out policies. This is similar to Bass' (1985) description of the Transactional Leader. The work of Burns (1978) supports this concept and notes that transactional leaders concentrate on the more routine day to day tasks.

Tichy and Ulrich (1984) have suggested that the distinguishing factor between transactional and transformational leadership is the leader's relationship to the organizational culture. An organization's culture, or set of shared values, beliefs and norms, can guide an organization and the actions of its members over relatively long periods of time. (Sashkin, 1985(c)) The transactional leader works within the organizational culture as it exists, whereas the transformational leader changes the organizational culture.

The transformational leader creates a vision for the organization, mobilizes the organization to accept and work towards achieving a new vision, and institutionalizes the changes so that they last over time.

(Tichy and Ulrich, 1984: 59)

Sashkin and Fulmer (1985(b)) support the thesis of Tichy and Ulrich (1984), but term transactional leadership as operational (managerial) leadership, and transformational leadership as visionary leadership.

Unlike Burns (1978), who believes that transformational and transactional leaders are situated on opposite ends of the continuum, Bass (1985) purports that leaders exhibit both transactional and transformational leadership in different amounts

and intensities. Similar to Bass (1985), Sashkin and Fulmer (1985(b)) believe that the differences in leadership at the lower (operational leadership) versus the top (executive leadership) organizational levels, are differences in degree or scale, not differences of kind. The relationship of transactional and transformational leadership as proposed by Bass (1985) is illustrated in Figure 2.

Sashkin and Fulmer (1986), Katz and Kahn (1978), and Mintzberg (1973) have criticized organizational psychologists for failing to examine top level or executive leadership as an organizationally relevant phenomenon. As a result, much of the academic literature dealing with charismatic and executive leadership has been written from a Freudian (Schiffer, 1973 and Pye, 1983) or sociological perspective (Burns, 1978).

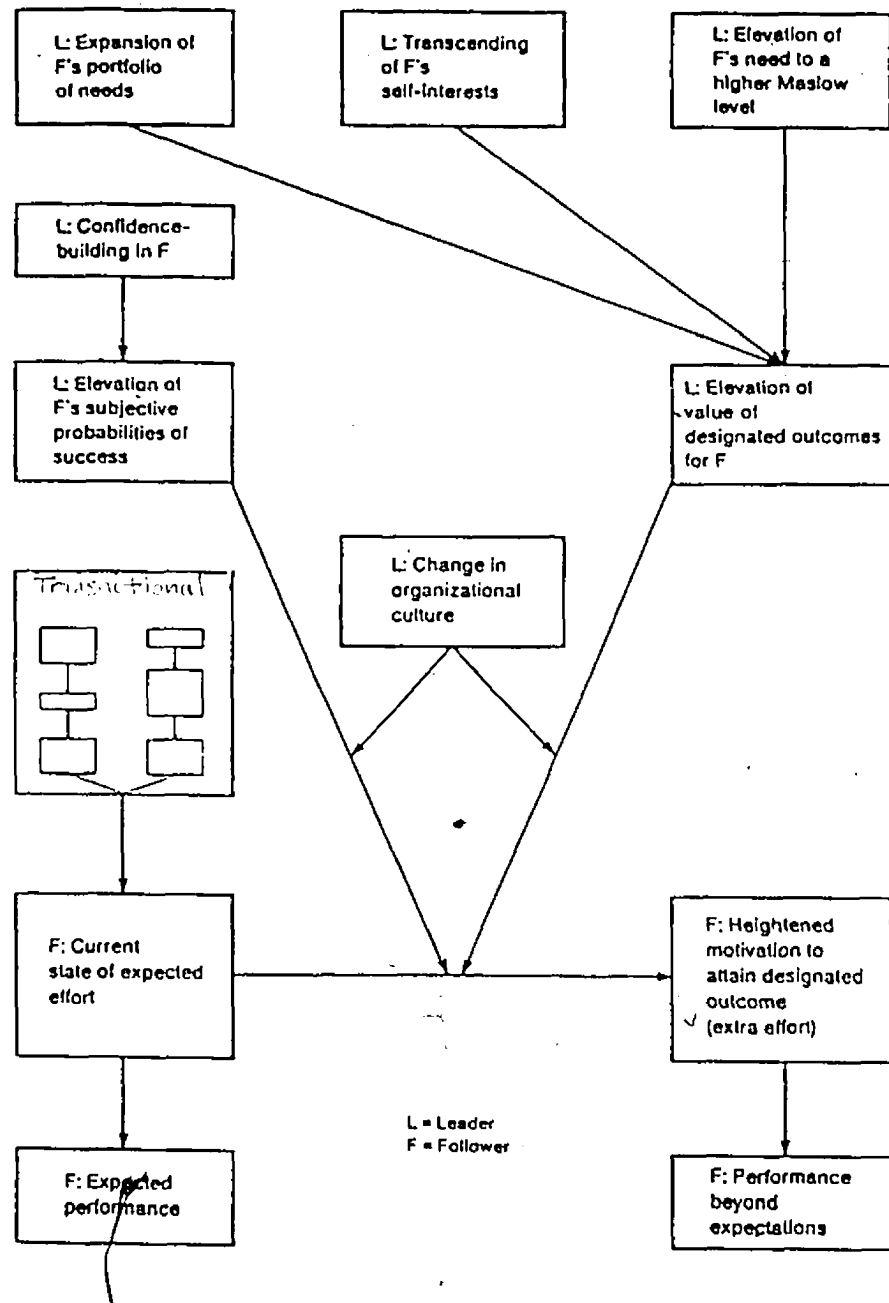
The Visionary Leadership Framework

Sashkin and Fulmer (1985(b)) have developed a framework to examine individual and organizational leadership, integrating both managerial/transactional and executive/visionary leadership. This study is an exploratory test of Sashkin's (1986 and 1988) framework.

The visionary leadership framework considers specific key leadership variables, identifies specific situational factors and illustrates how these interact to determine appropriate leader behaviour. (Valley, 1987)

The visionary leadership framework has incorporated the theories of Fiedler (1967), Hersey and Blanchard (1982) and House

Figure 2 - Transformational Leadership



(Bass, 1985: 23)

subordinate interaction and subordinates capabilities, while Fiedler dealt with the leader's control over situational task structure factors and on the specific task and relationship-centered behaviours. (Valley, 1987) However, Fielder, Hersey and Blanchard, and House did not consider all the variables of the person, situation, and behaviour.

The visionary leadership framework is also based upon the pioneering work of Katz and Khan (1966, 1978) and Mann (1965, 1968) and the more recent work of Jacques (1978, 1985, 1986) on personality structures and Bennis (1984) on leader behaviour. Lewin's (1951) paradigm, $B = f(P, S)$, where behaviour is a function of the person and the situation, is the mainstay of the framework. The work of Bandura (1979), supports that of Jacques (1978) and suggests that the behavioural, personal and situational factors all interact with one another to affect and determine one another. Thus the visionary leadership framework examines the three variables of the person, situation and behaviour at both the operational and executive levels. This framework is highlighted in Figure 3.

The visionary leadership framework posits that the level of effectiveness of a leader is determined by the situation appropriateness of the leader action. Leader actions which are situationally appropriate require (1) a need to empower others and cognitive ability (personality factors), and (2) specific behavioural skills. The visionary leadership framework will be

Figure 3 - Visionary Leadership Framework

Operational Leadership

Power: The effective mid- and lower-level leader has a high need for power. Such power is used not just to satisfy the leader's own personal desires but to have a significant impact on the organization and benefit its members (McClelland 1975).

Authority, Task Structure, Employees: On the level of specific jobs and tasks, the most potent situational factors seem to include the leader's authority of position, the ways tasks are set up or structured, and the ability and willingness of employees to actually do the job (Fiedler 1967, Hersey and Blanchard 1982, House 1971, Yukl 1981). The effective mid- and lower-level leader looks for and consciously assesses these situational factors, as a basis for deciding what specific behavioral actions to take.

Consistent Versatility: The effective mid- and lower-level is aware of the two broad basic types of leadership behavior, task-directed and relationship-centered, as well as the more specific behaviors within each category. Such leaders "tailor" their behavior to fit the different needs of different situations. When effective, such a tailored approach leads subordinates to see the leader as being both highly task-directed and highly-relationship-centered. Academics often misconstrue this to mean that effective leaders physically engage in high levels of both sorts of behavior, as could be identified by an objective observer.

PERSON

SITUATION

BEHAVIOR

Executive Leadership

Vision: Effective executive leaders can think in time spans of at least five years and, more typically, over periods of fifteen years and more. Such leaders see how their plans fit together, can clearly explain the process or sequence of action, know how to apply plans in various situation and can see opportunities for expanding their plans across organizational structures (Jaques 1985).

Change, Goals, People: On the broad organizational level, three issues can be seen as key aspects of the organization's "culture." These issues are: action-emphasis for effective adaptation, focus on goals of importance to clients, and involvement of employees. They represent the critical functions any organization must deal with effectively in order to survive: adaptation, goal attainment, and coordination (Parsons 1960). The effective executive leader understands these key aspects organizational culture and is always assessing their strength as well as looking for new ways to strengthen them (Peters and Waterman 1982).

Charisma: The effective executive leader understands and is skilled in using a set of key task- and relationship-centered behaviors that produce in others the feeling of charisma—being inspired, wanting to perform beyond "standard" expectations, having high self-worth, and belonging to the organization. Some of these behaviors are: effective communication, focused attention, consistent actions, expressed concern for people, and creating sensible risks and opportunities that involve others (Bennis 1984). The leader uses these behaviors and the resultant charismatic feelings to create and reinforce shared beliefs that define and sustain the three key aspects of organizational culture (concerning change, goals, and people).

(Sashkin, 1988: 53)

further examined based upon the (1) person, (2) situation and (3) behavioural considerations.

Personal

Sashkin and Fulmer (1986) and Sashkin (1988) have suggested that visionary leaders exhibit three personal characteristics. First, visionary leaders believe they can make a difference and have a significant impact on their organization. Second, they want power in order to use it to influence and empower organizational members to attain goals that are part of or will help build the leaders' visions. Third, they have a relatively long time perspective and a relatively broad view of the organization and its environment. (Sashkin, 1987) The degree to which the leader exhibits these factors determines whether the leader is functioning at the operational/transactional or executive/visionary leadership level.

Thus, in Sashkin and Fulmer's (1986) framework, effective leaders: (1) believe they can have an impact on the organization; (2) have a high need for power in order to create such impacts; and (3) are at a level of cognitive development appropriate to the time span requirements of their position.

Situation

The second component of Sashkin and Fulmer's framework is the situation. The key situational factors, for both the transactional and visionary leader, relate to Parson's Action Framework (1960). Cited in Figure 4, the Action Framework, consists of four critical functions necessary for the survival of any goal-directed system:

Figure 4 - Parson's Action Framework

	MEANS	ENDS
OUTSIDE	<p>ADAPTATION</p> <p>changing to meet new or changing environmental conditions</p>	<p>GOAL ATTAINMENT</p> <p>activity related to the production and delivery of some output</p>
INSIDE	<p>VALUES</p> <p>definitions of what is good or bad and basic beliefs shared by most members of the organization</p>	<p>INTEGRATION</p> <p>formal and informal patterns of coordination--rules and norms</p>

(Sashkin and Fulmer, 1985(b): 66)

adaptation, goal attainment, coordinating activities (integration), and maintenance of these patterns (culture).

Transactional/operational and executive leaders utilize different combinations and degrees of these situational factors. Executive and visionary leaders concentrate on the cultural or value factors, thereby creating beliefs that support the first three functions of the Action Framework, while the operational/transactional leaders deal with the specific context of the three functions of the Framework.

Visionary leaders must develop organizational beliefs and value systems that make it more likely that the critical adaptation, goal attainment, and integration functions will be completed effectively. The development of the organizational culture or pattern maintaining function is the primary task of executive/visionary leaders and is the one that supports the other three key functions.

Thus the situational factors are defined by the Action Framework (Parsons, 1960) for the transactional/operational and executive or visionary leader. The transactional leader deals with the implementation of policies and programs through the use of authority, task structure and employees. The visionary leader deals with the issues of change, goals and people in order to establish an organizational culture or values.

Behaviour

The examination of leader behaviour is the final factor of Sashkin and Fulmer's Visionary Leadership Theory. The interaction

between the leader's personality and the situational variables result in behaviour. For example, if the manager exhibits the appropriate need for power characteristic, but does not have the cognitive capacity to identify and appropriately deal with the situational factors, the leader will not be effective.

A review of behavioural research has identified two dimensions of leadership behaviour which encompass a large proportion of the work in the area of leadership. The first dimension, task focused activities, includes setting goals, giving direction, providing materials, and organizing the work setting. The second, interpersonal or relationship centered activities, includes co-operation with co-workers, providing psychological support, and guiding the work group's interactions. (Sashkin and Fulmer, 1985(b)) The study of these dimensions, under various descriptive titles, has occurred since the early 1950's.

Sashkin and Fulmer (1985(b)) have suggested that operational leaders become versatile and tailor their behaviour to fit the different needs of different situations. Thus through the actions of the leader, the subordinates believe that leader is exhibiting both high task directed and high relationship centered behaviour. This does not mean that the leader actually physically engages in high levels of both behaviours, but rather, they are perceived to be doing so by the observer.

The visionary leader must use a set of task and relationship centered behaviours, but with expanded objectives. In order to create an organizational culture, executive leaders must engage in

three actions: (1) strategic - creating and organizational philosophy; (2) tactical - establishing policies and programs; and (3) personal interactive behaviour. (Sashkin and Fulmer, 1986) The behaviours which characterize visionary leadership include focused leadership, risk leadership, communication leadership, trust leadership, and respectful leadership. (Sashkin, 1988: 9)

Thus while the degree of utilization of the paradigm differs, the basic pattern of behaviour being a function of the person and situation, holds true for both operational and executive leadership. Operational leadership parallels the concept of Transactional Leadership as proposed by Bass (1985) and Tichy and Ulrich (1984). Executive leadership is similar to the proposition of transformational leadership (Tichy and Devanna, 1986, and Bass (1985)), and visionary leadership.

Thus the concept of visionary leadership, as proposed by Sashkin and Fulmer (1986), considers the personal, situational and behavioural components.

The Leadership Behaviour Questionnaire Instrument

The Leadership Behaviour Questionnaire (LBQ), developed by Sashkin in 1984 and revised in 1986 and 1988, is the instrument which will be used in this study. The 1988 LBQ examines ten factors, including four managerial or transactional leadership scales, derived from the Michigan four factor theory of leadership, and six executive or visionary leadership factors.

The LBQ measures task and relationship centered behaviours for transactional leadership in terms of supportive, goal-oriented,

task-centered, and team management. As the LBQ is concerned with measuring the meaning of behaviour and not the physical activity, high scores are desirable. (Sashkin, 1985(c))

The visionary leader also engages in task and relationship centered behaviours. The LBQ measures three relationship focused and two task oriented actions. The relationship related behaviours are oriented to instilling the value of the importance of people and their involvement in the organization. (Valley, 1987) These include Communication, Trust, and Respectful Leadership. Risk Leadership which relates to the adaptation action and Focused Leadership which emphasizes task-goal achievement are the task oriented factors.

In the 1988 version of the LBQ, Sashkin has replaced the four managerial leadership scales, with two scales that assess the respondents personal characteristics and two scales that assess the organizational context. (The 1988 revision draft of the LBQ was used in this thesis as the final revision had not been completed.)

Descriptions of the ten LBQ indices and specific research and statistics utilizing this instrument will be cited in Chapter 3. A copy of the Operational Model is cited in Figure 1 (Chapter 1.)

The literature related to effective leader behaviour will be reviewed based upon the ten indices of the 1986 LBQ and the four additional scales of the 1988 LBQ.

1. Focused Leadership

Sashkin (1986(b)) has defined focused leadership as the focusing of others attention on the key issues and gaining

commitment to the vision of the leader.

Tichy and Devanna (1986) concur and purport that visionary leaders are value driven. Visionary leaders can articulate a set of core values and exhibit behaviour congruent with their value positions.

Bennis (1984), in an examination of ninety chief executive officers of major American companies, identified five basic behaviour patterns characteristic of leaders who were successful and inspired their followers in a visionary manner. Bennis (1984) classified the focused leadership characteristic as the Management of Attention, and has suggested that leaders manage attention through a compelling vision that can incite the followers to actions far beyond their intentions.

The work of Bennis and Nanus (1985) posits that the concept of focusing attention is similar to the idea of visioning.

... the leaders paid attention to what was going on, they determined what part of the events at hand would be important for the future of the organization, they set a new direction, and they concentrated the attention of everyone in the organization on it.

(Bennis and Nanus, 1985: 88)

Peters and Waterman (1982) found in their study of excellent companies that each CEO could articulate a goal or vision, in a few words, that summarized what was unique about the company, and what the company stood for. Sears' vision of "value at a decent price" is an example.

2. Communication Leadership

Leaders lead by communicating. (Valley, 1987) Boles and Davenport (1983) have suggested that influence, power and authority can only be utilized through communication.

Horne and Lupton (1965) have noted that the most time-consuming activity for all managers is the giving and receiving of information. Stewart (1967) has suggested that managers spend between seventy and eighty percent of their time talking in meetings with subordinates, superiors, colleagues, and representatives external to the organization.

Bennis (1984) agrees that the Management of Meaning or communicating effectively is characteristic of high performing chief executive officers. Bennis has suggested that leaders must communicate their visions in order to align people with the vision. The effective leader can communicate ideas about the vision through several layers of the organization. Sashkin (1985(a)) believes that communicating effectively includes: (1) listening for understanding; (2) rephrasing for clarity; (3) giving constructive feedback; and (4) summarizing when appropriate. Sashkin (1988) purports that a leader's vision is more likely to be heard, understood, and accepted if the leader first hears and understands the comments of others.

Effective communication on the part of visionary leaders is not just a matter of good media presence but is, in essence, achieved through one-to-one personal communication skills.

(Sashkin, 1987, 30)

Bennis and Nanus (1985) describe the communication skills of the leader as that of a social architect. In order for a

transformation of the social architecture to occur, three processes must be completed. First, a compelling vision must be created. Second, commitment must be developed to the vision. Third, the vision must be institutionalized.

3. Trust Leadership

Bennis (1984), Bass (1985) and Sashkin and Fulmer (1986) purport that leadership based upon trust is an effective leadership behaviour. Trust leadership includes the consideration of the importance of people, consistency in actions and trustworthiness.

Bennis (1984) found that outstanding CEO's exhibit consistent behaviour. The followers always knew where the leader stood on issues; they did not flip-flop in their positions. Bennis (1984) has named this factor the Management of Trust.

Bass (1985) reported four studies on varying target groups. These were administered to: (1) one hundred and seventy-six American army officers, (2) two hundred and fifty-six supervisors and managers of Fortune 500 firms, (3) fifty-six educational administrators, and (4) one hundred and thirty-eight undergraduates. In these studies Bass (1985) found three transformational factors and two transactional factors related to effective leadership. Bass (1985) found that individual consideration, the cultivation, establishment and breaking off of intensive one-on-one relationships; and charismatic leadership, the ability to have a profound and extraordinary effects on followers to be two factors related to transformational leadership.

4. Respectful Leadership

Sashkin (1986(a)) has suggested that displaying respect for one's self and others is the fourth visionary leadership behaviour. Respectful Leadership includes a sense of self-respect, of confidence in one's self and one's abilities, and is illustrated not only in the leader's opinion of himself, but in how he treats others.

Bugenthal (1965) has stated that being authentic consists of being as fully aware as one can be, choosing alternatives and values to which to commit effort; taking responsibility for each choice; and recognizing the imperfection of one's awareness and the inherent risk. Boles and Davenport (1983) have summarized this concept of authenticity:

...Leaders...must have a sense of identity that does not depend on status. They must have values which are so integral to their natures that they cannot be denied. They must know their cultural prejudices and the limitations that those prejudices impose. They must know how far they can go in trying to be like others without compromising their own standards.

(Boles and Davenport, 1983: 268)

Bennis (1984) has termed Respectful Leadership, Management of Self, or knowing one's skills and deploying them effectively. Sashkin (1985(a)) has suggested that leaders must begin with self-respect, as the leaders cannot care about others unless they care about themselves. Sashkin believes that executive leaders are self-assured and certain of their abilities, thereby creating an aura of confidence with their followers. Holdstock and Rogers

(1977) posit that through "unconditional positive regard" from significant others, positive self regard is developed.

A visionary leader may disapprove of, and punish certain behaviours, but this does not change the leader's positive attitude towards the individual as a person. (Sashkin, 1988) The work of Blanchard and Johnson (1982) supports this concept. In the "One Minute Manager", Blanchard and Johnson emphasized that at the end of the "one minute reprimand", the leader should make an explicit expression of care and concern for the individual and indicate that although their actions were wrong, the employee will remain respected as a person.

House (1977), in his model of charismatic leadership, ranks the characteristics of self-confidence and a strong conviction in the moral righteousness of his or her beliefs as the chief factors charismatic leaders must possess. Conger (1985), in a study comparing business leaders described as charismatic or non-charismatic, on a "priori" basis found that the subordinates of charismatic leaders described their leader's approval as a critical source of confirmation and became the principle measure of self-worth.

Visionary leaders not only tell organizational members that they are important, but they communicate this message through behavioural acts, such as supporting certain policies and programs or providing rewards. (Sashkin, 1987(b))

5. Risk Leadership

Tichy and Ulrich (1984) believe that visionary leaders are

courageous individuals who are prudent risk-takers. Valley (1987) purports that attempts to lead and success in leading others are greater among those willing to take greater risks.

Sashkin (1986(b)) concurs and has suggested that visionary leaders take calculated risks and show a commitment to the risks once the course of action is decided. Visionary leaders have "no energy to spare for covering their butts; all their efforts go towards achieving their goals". (Sashkin, 1986(c): 4) Bass (1985) has suggested that visionary leaders consistently take risks for "creative administration". Zaleznick (1977) believes that leaders are more concerned with ideas rather than processes; ideas which the leader can articulate and project into images.

Wallach, Kogan and Bem (1962) have found that high risk takers were more influential in discussion than low risk takers. Clausen (1965) and Burnstein (1969) have suggested that high risk takers tend to score higher in self-confidence which assisted them in attempting to and succeeding in influencing the group to follow their lead. However Bass, Burger, Doktor and Barrett (1979) did not find any association between the rate of advancement of one thousand and forty-four managers in an international sample and their self-rated actual and preferred risk taking under uncertainty. Hollander (1964) has suggested that the higher the perceived level of competence and conformity of the leader, the greater the possibility of his maintaining the support of his followers when taking risks.

Tichy and Devanna (1986) purport that visionary leaders are life-long learners. Bennis (1984) has suggested that leaders value learning and mastery. Transformational leaders are able to discuss mistakes they have made, and do not view these as failures, but rather as a form of feedback or learning experience. The intellectual stimulation factor proposed by Bass (1985) compliments this component by arousing the subordinates to continually consider options and possible results prior to taking action.

Ginzberg (1966), in a review of top executives, summarizes the concept of risk leadership:

...the leader must make his decisions, change them if necessary, but he must live with them. If his calculations go awry he cannot place blame on others. Nor has he anything to gain by passing the buck.

(Ginzberg, 1966: 115)

6. Follower-Centered Leadership

Bennis (1984) found that the behaviours of visionary leaders, as measured by the five preceding indices, consistently generate a set of feelings in the followers. The followers feel that their work is meaningful, that they are masters of their own behaviour, and feel competent. The followers feel a sense of community with their co-workers and report that they enjoy working with the visionary leader. Sashkin (1986) has labelled this concern for followers, "Follower-Centered Leadership".

Iacocca (1984) has suggested that all business operation can be reduced to three words: "people, product and profits. People come first. Unless you have a good team, you cannot do much with the other two." (Iacocca, 1984:167)

Tichy and Devanna (1986) concur and purport that visionary leaders believe in people. Visionary leaders are powerful yet sensitive of other people and ultimately work toward the empowerment of others. Bennis (1984) has postulated that empowerment is the collective effect of leadership. In organizations with effective leaders, empowerment is evident in four themes: (1) people feel significant - everyone in the organization feels that they make a difference to the success of the organization; (2) leaders value learning and mastery; (3) people are part of a community; and (4) work is exciting, challenging and fun. (Bennis, 1984:7.8) This factor parallels the individual consideration component proposed in Bass' (1985) thesis.

Transformational and visionary leaders, like transactional leaders, also recognize the needs of the potential followers, but tend to go further and seek to arouse and satisfy the follower's higher needs and attempts to engage the full person of the follower. (Bass, 1985) Maslow, in 1954, estimated that the average person living in the United States, had satisfied eighty-five percent of his physiological needs, seventy percent of his safety needs, fifty percent of his affiliative needs, forty percent of his esteem needs and had satisfied ten percent of his self-actualization needs. Thus if Maslow's percentages are accurate, the opportunities for visionary leaders lie at the higher level needs and verifies the proposition that visionary leaders should show an increase concern for the followers' growth. (Bass, 1985)

While both transactional and visionary leadership involves sensing the followers' needs, it is the visionary leaders who raises the followers' consciousness about higher concerns through articulation and role modelling. Unlike the transactional leader who indicates how the current needs of the followers can be fulfilled, the visionary leader sharply arouses or alters the strength of needs of the followers which may have lain dormant. (Bass, 1985)

The Follower Centered Leadership index has been deleted in the 1988 version of the LBQ.

The following four managerial factors relate to transactional leadership.

7. Supportive Management

Supportive Management refers to the leader's personal concern for employees and to the relationship between the leader and the employees. This supportive behaviour implies a sensitivity to the feelings of employees and showing concern for the employees expressed problems and feelings on a one-to-one basis. (Sashkin, 1986) Valley (1987) found that leaders differed in their concern about the group members. Peters and Waterman (1982) have suggested that executive or visionary leaders should foster an organizational belief in the importance of and concern for people.

A review of the behavioural research has identified two dimensions of leadership behaviour which encompass a large proportion of the work in the area of leadership. The first dimension deals with task focused activities (Indices 8 and 9) and

the second, interpersonal or relationship centered activities, including cooperation with co-workers, providing psychological support, and guiding the work group's interactions (Indices 7 and 10). (Sashkin and Fulmer, 1985(b))

The study of these dimensions, under various descriptive titles, has occurred since the early 1950's. The inference was made by many scholars (Fleishman, 1955) and practitioners (Blake and Mouton, 1962 and Bales, 1958) that effective leaders exhibited high levels of both task and relationship focused activities. Subsequent research studies on the relationship between leader behaviour and subordinate performance, in both field and laboratory settings has failed to demonstrate a consistent relationship between levels of the two leader behaviours and subordinate performance. However, non-observational studies have shown a strong relationship between high levels of both behaviours, as reported by subordinates, and leader effectiveness measures. (Sashkin and Fulmer, 1986)

Sashkin and Fulmer (1985) have suggested that operational leaders become versatile and tailor their behaviour to fit the different needs of different situations. Thus through the actions of the leader, the subordinates believe that the leader is exhibiting both high task directed and high relationship centered behaviour. This does not mean that the leader actually physically engages in high levels of both behaviours, but rather, they are perceived to be engaging in both behaviours by the observer.

The effective leader changes his or her behaviour to take into account situational factors. A 1979 study by Hall and Donnell substantiates this thesis. Hall and Donnell (1979), in a study of 2000 managers, found that high achievers, or leaders who were promoted faster than their peers, expressed a strong preference for a behavioural style that emphasized both dimensions of leadership behaviour. Mann and Dent (1954) have cited similar results in that highly promotable supervisors were described by employees as being good at handling people, approachable, willing to "got to bat" for employees, letting them know where they stand, pulling for both company and worker, and using general rather than close supervision.

8. Goal-Oriented Management

Bradford and Cohen (1985) have suggested that the establishment of an overarching goal or superordinate goal (Block, 1986) for a work unit, can provide meaning to the unit's work, and unite and inspire the unit members with a vision. Bradford and Cohen (1984) have cited four essential components of an effective overarching goal. First the goal must reflect the core purpose of the department; second, the goal must be feasible; third, the goal must be challenging; and fourth the goal must have larger significance. The work of Peters (1984) suggests that no successful superordinate goal can be exclusively financial. Aiming for the best return on investment, by itself, will not incite organizational members to work to their potential.

Thus Goal-Oriented Management is concerned with task-related behaviours, with a focus on consultation with the employees to develop specific, high performance goals. (Sashkin, 1984) Through rewarding the achievements of the employees, the leader behaviourally demonstrates a commitment to high performance. Sashkin (1985(a)) has suggested that the main premise of Goal-Oriented Management is the clear establishment of an employee performance level.

9. Task-Centered Management

Task-Centered Management includes those behaviours in which the leader organizes and defines the group activities and the leader's relationship to the group. The leader defines the role of each group member, assigns tasks, establishes a plan, and emphasizes production. (Fleishman and Harris, 1962)

Although Task-Centered Management, like Goal-Oriented Management, equally focuses on the task, Task Centered Management is directed to tasks which are administrative in nature and generally related to the task-relevant duties of the manager. Task-Centered Management also includes task related "coaching" activities such as the resolution of work problems and skill development. (Sashkin, 1985(a)) Task-Centered Theory suggests that the absence of a leader to clarify task requirements and group goals would result in increased time being allocated by groups to clarify and order the work tasks.

Valenzi et al. (1972), in a review of research on the impact of leader behaviour on task requirements, concluded that the degree

of task structure, routineness, complexity, interdependency, and intellectual rather than manipulative requirements systematically alter the amount and kind of leadership that will be most effective.

Bass, Valenzi, Farrow and Solomon (1975) have determined that routine tasks were associated with less participatory leadership and more complex tasks with negotiative leadership and increased delegation. Bass et al (1975) also concluded that when subordinates engaged in managerial activities, delegation was increased.

10. Team Management

Team Management measures how well the leader encourages teamwork among their employees.

Livingstone (1969) has suggested that the leader's expectations for the group are integral to effective team management. Livingstone posits that:

- (1) What a manager expects from his subordinates and the way he treats them, largely determines their performance and career progress; and ...
 - (2) Subordinates more often than not appear to do what they believe they are expected to do.
- (Livingstone, 1969:82)

Thus realistic and challenging expectations and an appropriate process must be utilized.

Raven and Eachus (1963) have determined that cooperation versus competition within groups is instrumental in effective team management. It was found that groups with a cooperative membership were more likely to develop leaders, evaluate fellow members more

favourable, show less hostility, and solve their problems as a group more rapidly.

Valley (1987) has suggested that the team management strategies utilized by the leader should consider several factors, including: (1) the maturity of the followers (Hersey and Blanchard, 1982); (2) the position power, leader-member relations and the task structure of the group (Fiedler, 1967); and (3) the hierarchical position of the leader (Katz and Kahn, 1978). As noted in the discussion under Indice 7, both structure, or organizing behaviour, and consideration, or membership behaviour, have been found to be significantly related to group cohesiveness.

Thus, Sashkin (1985(a)) believes that team building is essential for the full development of the potential productive interaction among employees.

The Leader Behaviour Questionnaire, 1988 Edition

The Leader Behaviour Questionnaire, 1988 edition, has replaced the four scales of transactional leadership and the sixth visionary leadership indice with three scales that assess the respondent's personal characteristics and two scales that assess the organizational context or culture.

Personal Characteristics

Sashkin (1987(a)) has identified three scales associated with the personal characteristics of the visionary leader. These include: (1) bottom-line leadership, or the belief that the leader can make a significant impact or effect the final "bottom-line" outcomes in the organization; (2) empowered leadership, or the

desire for power to influence and empower the organization's membership to attain goals that are part of, or will help build the leader's vision; and (3) long-term leadership, or the ability to have a relatively broad and long term view of the organization and its environment. (Sashkin, 1988 (a):27-31)

11. Bottom-Line Leadership/ 12. Empowered Leadership

Sashkin and Fulmer (1986(b)) have suggested that effective leaders must be motivated to make an impact on the "bottom-line" outcomes of an organization. This is similar to Miner's (1965) concept of "motivation to manage", but more closely parallels McClelland's (1975) concept of "pro-social power needs". Initially, McClelland and Burham (1976) believed that effective leaders were high on the need for achievement. They found however, that individuals with a high need for achievement tended to complete the job themselves, rather than enlisting others to accomplish the goals, because these leaders valued the associated achievement. McClelland and Burham (1976), in a revision of their initial thesis, suggested that effective leaders scored moderately in the need for achievement, and highly on the need for power. McClelland and Boyitzis (1982) have determined that the pattern of moderate to high socialized power need, moderate to high need for achievement, and relatively low need for affiliation is characteristic of successful managers over periods of fifteen years or more.

Block (1987) believes that empowerment is the single critical factor in management effectiveness. Sashkin (1987(a)) disagrees,

and posits that the need for power is but one factor. Previous research by House (1977), House and Baetz (1979) and Stogdill (1948, 1974) has illustrated that aggressiveness, power-orientation, and high dominance needs are traits characteristic of leaders. Furthermore, Burke (1986) has suggested that effective managers use power to empower employees and to attain goals that benefit their employees and organization, not just the leader, as is the case with the charismatic behaviour theories of Bass (1985) and Howell (1987). McClelland (1975) believes that when the need for power is expressed as dominance or personal gratification, the leader will not be effective. Thus, effective visionary leaders use power to empower others who then use their power and influence to enact the elements of the leader's vision. (Sashkin, 1988(b): 29)

Classic (Stogdill, 1948) and modern research on leaders' personalities consistently suggests that effective leaders have a strong need to make a difference and obtain the power and influence to do so.

13. Long-Term Leadership

The third personality factor, cognitive ability/time orientation, does not refer to a general intelligence factor, rather it is consistent with Stogdill's (1948) synthesis which defined intelligence as "knowing how to get things done" and "alertness to, and insight into situations". Tichy and Ulrich (1984) believe that visionary leaders have the cognitive ability

to deal with complexity, ambiguity and uncertainty and are able to cope with and frame problems in a complex, changing world.

Jaques (1978) Time Span of Discretion Theory suggests that people in organizations differ primarily in the length of time of their longest term responsibilities. For example, a foreman needs no more than a one year long range vision to fulfil the "administration" tasks noted by Katz and Kahn (1978); the middle managers, who "interpolate" top level policies, require time spans of two to four years; whereas the executive leaders who "originate" policies and programs must think in terms of time spans of up to ten years.

Jaques (1985), in an extension of Piagetian theory, has suggested that at higher organizational levels individuals require more advanced cognitive development in order to vision over longer time spans. Jaques (1986) has defined four cognitive skills which are applied in a repeating hierarchial sequence, with each level being applied over a longer time span and to a broader system level. Sashkin and Fulmer (1986) has labelled these skills: (1) expressing, (2) explaining, (3) extending and (4) expanding.

First, the visionary leader must express the vision. Expressing requires the leader to understand and physically perform the sequence of actions they must do to make a vision real. (Sashkin and Fulmer, 1986) Tichy and Ulrich (1984) believe that while other key members of the organization may be involved in the development of a vision, the creation of the vision remains the core responsibility of the visionary leader.

Second, the visionary leaders must explain the vision to others and ensure that the nature of the vision is clear in terms of the required action steps and aims. Explaining is more than re-stating the vision's nature or aim through written and oral communication; the visionary leader must be able to describe how the actions which are required for the vision will link together to attain its goal. (Sashkin, 1986(a))

Third, the visionary leader must extend and apply the vision to a sequence of activities and to a variety of situations so that the vision can be implemented in several ways and places. (Sashkin, 1987(a)) Tichy and Ulrich (1984) believe that the challenge of the visionary leader is not merely creating and expressing a vision, rather it is the extent to which the vision is able to correctly respond to environmental pressure and transitions within the organization. The visionary leader must be able to explain these changes.

Fourth, the visionary leader must expand the vision in many different ways in a wide variety of circumstances. The visionary leader must have the conceptual skill to study the overall plan or vision and consider how to revise the entire organization so that it is consistent with the vision. (Sashkin, 1987(a))

Thus, in Sashkin and Fulmer's (1986) Framework, effective leaders believe they can have an impact on the organization and have a high need for power in order to create such impacts and are at a level of cognitive development appropriate to the time span requirements of their position.

Organizational Context/Culture

Schien (1985), Deal and Kennedy (1982), Bass (1985), Tichy and Ulrich (1984), and Sashkin and Fulmer (1986) agree that executive leaders are directly concerned with creating culture and designing organizational functions that promote organizational effectiveness. Peters and Waterman (1982) and Vaill (1981), have identified cultural elements associated with sustained high performance.

14. Organizational Leadership

Sashkin (1988) believes that the organizational leadership function considers the degree to which the leader has a positive impact on the four critical factors outlined in Figure 5.

As executive leaders have the cognitive ability to develop long range visions or time spans, this enables the leader to coordinate the long-term issue of developing a culture, or set of shared values, beliefs and value systems that make it more likely that the critical adaptation, goal attainment and integration functions will be completed effectively. The development of the organizational culture or pattern maintaining function is the primary task of executive leaders and is the one that supports the other three key functions.

The Performance Maintaining Function defines the goals of the organization and how these goals relate to client and customer needs. This relationship is illustrated in Figure 5.

Sashkin and Fulmer (1986) and Sashkin (1987(b)) have identified three key aspects essential to the development of an

organization's culture, namely: (1) action-emphasis for effective adaptation; (2) focus on goals of importance to clients; and (3) integration through coordinated interpersonal interaction. These aspects equate to the adaptation, goal attainment, and integration functions identified by Parsons (1960).

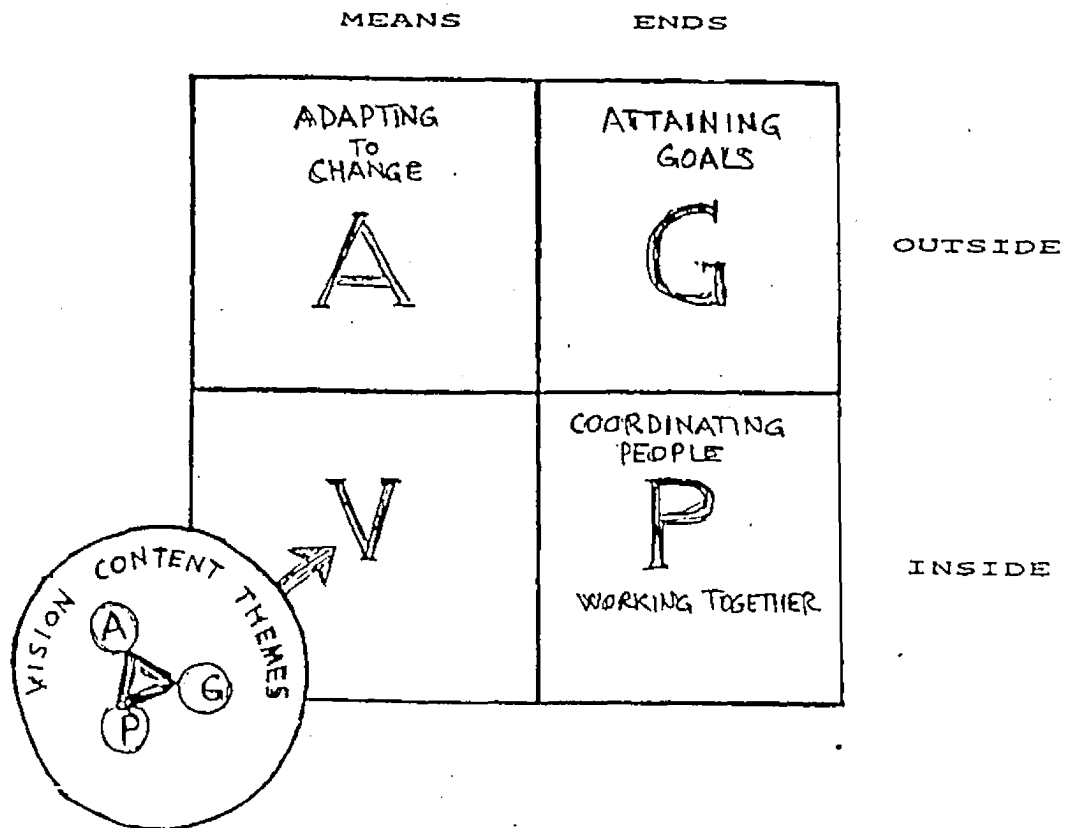
Action-emphasis for effective adaptation refers to the importance of organizational members to be empowered to take sensible risks and to believe that even actions that are not fully successful are more desirable than no action at all. This is the central theme of organizational leadership. Tichy and Ulrich (1984) concur and have suggested that in order for adaptation to occur, visionary leaders should encourage internal entrepreneurialship and the norm of risk taking.

Sashkin (1987(a)) believes that by focusing on goals of importance to clients, the organizational goal attainment function will be strengthened. Sashkin (1986(c)) believes that this is true for both profit and not-for-profit organizations, although it is often more difficult to obtain feedback from the latter.

15. Cultural Leadership

The integration function considers the value of concern for people and the value of involvement, influence and participation of the organizational members. Sashkin believes that an emphasis on these values facilitates the effective management of complex interdependencies that can only be coordinated through direct

Figure 5 - Vision Content Themes in Parson's Action Framework



(Sashkin, 1987(a):48)

contact. Effective executive leaders understand the key aspects of organizational culture and are continually assessing their strengths and looking for new ways to strengthen the culture. (Peters and Waterman, 1982)

Hoy and Ferguson (1985) examined the degree to which each of the four functions were being performed effectively in a sample of schools. It was found that when the four functions were being performed well, the school was more likely to be seen as effective by expert judges, and the judges' ratings were consistent with the objective performance measures, including the student achievement scores on standardized tests. (Sashkin, 1987(b))

Schien (1985) purports that constructing the organization's culture, may be the only really important task for organizational leaders.

In the LBQ, Sashkin (1988 (b)) has defined two indices related to the situation or organizational culture; organizational and cultural leadership. Organizational leadership refers to how the organization is carrying out the four key functions of adaptation, goal attainment, coordination and maintenance. Cultural leadership determines the extent to which values and beliefs exist to support these four functions.

Thus, visionary leaders define and communicate excellence values or culture through their behaviours.

National Sport Organizations

National Sport Organizations (NSO's) form the core of the delivery system for sport in Canada. These organizations have the constitutional mandate for the development and control of amateur sports at the national level. (Neill, 1983) They are voluntary organizations (Challadurai, 1985) and are subsidized by the Federal Ministry of Fitness and Amateur Sport.

National sport organizations are predominately single sport organizations and are generally autonomous in nature. (Schrodt, 1981) There are approximately ninety national sport and recreation organizations at the national level of which eleven are multi-sport or multi-agency organizations. (National Sport and Recreation Centre) Sixty-six of the national sport organizations have their national offices in the Canadian Sport and Fitness Administration Centre (CSFAC) in Ottawa. (National Sport and Recreation Centre)

The CSFAC was established in 1971 to provide a central work environment for the national sport organizations and administrative and consultative services. The CSFAC has no direct authority over the national sport organizations.

Although each national sport organization has its own specific goals, a review of the goal statements and mandates indicates that national sport organizations are involved in the administration, development and promotion of a particular sport. (Neill, 1983)

The role of the national sport organizations has been identified to include the following:

1. To provide various levels of competition including competitions at the national level;
2. To hold the sanctioning rights as they relate to the sports at the national and international levels;
3. To establish the rules and regulations to be adapted to the international, national and provincial levels;
4. To provide coaching for teams under their jurisdiction and to develop standards and certification programs for coaches;
5. To provide national teams;
6. To provide technical development programs for their sports on a national basis;
7. To provide information and fund raising programs for their sports on a national level;
8. To represent the sports and to communicate with the federal government;
9. To provide administrative support systems at the national level;
10. To represent and develop the sports at the national level; and
11. To provide officials for national and international competitions and to develop standards and certification programs for officials.

(Government of Canada, 1979:22)

This is the most recent policy statement on the role of NSOs. Figure 6 outlines the environmental influences, inputs and outputs of the national sport organizations.

NSO Staff

National sport organizations have varying numbers of professional staff members. The three most common professional roles are those of the Executive Director, Technical Director and some form of Head Coach. Only twenty-five percent of national

**FIGURE 6 - AN OUTLINE OF SELECTED COMPONENTS
OF NSOs**

Component	Summary Variable	Major Elements
Environment	National Associations	Canadian Olympic Association Coaching Association of Canada National Sport & Recreation Centre Canadian InterUniversity Athletic Union Sports Medicine Council of Canada Canadian Colleges Athletic Association Sports Federation of Canada Commonwealth Games Council
	Federal Government	Fitness and Amateur Sport Department of National Health & Welfare Department of External Affairs Department of Consumer & Corporate Affairs Department of Manpower & Immigration Treasury Board
	Consumers	General Public Schools and Communities
	Other Support Groups	Researchers Media Business & Professional Groups
	Provincial Bodies	Provincial Governments Provincial Sport Governing Bodies
	International Bodies	International Sport Federation International Multi-sport Organizations
Boundaries	Membership Structure Goal Statements & Objectives Policies & Procedures Mandate Program Objectives	
Boundary Spanners	Professionals Volunteers	
Inputs	Energy - Human	Athletes, volunteers administrators, professional administrators, support staff, consultants, coaches, officials, interns/ apprentices.
	Energy - Technological Materials Information	secretarial, graphics, translation, photographic funds (public/private), equipment, facilities, educational sport policy, resource acquisition, output dispersal; feedback
Outputs	Products - Personnel	high performance and recreational athletes, trained coaches, officials & administrators
	Products - Instructional Materials	audiovisual; publications, verbal presentations
	Communications	magazine/newsletter, reports, meetings, media releases, correspondence
	Services	competitions, instructional programs, development programs, promotional programs high performance & recreational programs

(Neill, 1983:121)

sport organizations have a professional staff member whose main responsibility is domestic development, thereby enforcing the high performance orientation of the NSO's. (Slack and Hinings, 1987)

Generally NSO's are headed by Executive Directors, Executive Vice-Presidents or Directors General. To be eligible to receive funding from Sport Canada for the position of Director General, an NSO must have : (1) an approved and operational Quadrennial Plan (QPP) which has as one of its major objectives the attainment of international prominence in sport; (2) a minimum annual operating budget of \$500,000; (3) the full membership support for the placement of accountability for performance in all areas in the hands of the Director General; and (4) have a performance monitoring and appraisal system. (Sport Canada: Core Support Program, 1988-89:67)

The Director General is the recognized and identified Chief Executive and Chief Administrative Officer of the national sport organization. The Director General is responsible for the definition of policy, the allocation of resources and the accomplishment of objectives in each of the operational areas (technical, organizational infrastructure, administrative support, domestic development and high performance) of the NSO. The Director General has effective control of the implementation, monitoring and evaluation of all programs. The Director General is formally accountable through the President or other chief elected officer.

To be eligible to receive funding support for the position of Executive Director, the NSO must: (1) meet Sport Canada's Sport Recognition policy and have a satisfactory record of management of contributions received from the Core Support Program; (2) have an effective policy-setting apparatus in operation; (3) operate according to good business principles and be willing to delegate sufficient authority to the professional staff to permit them to be instrumental in the implementation and further development of the NSO; and (4) have a performance monitoring and performance appraisal system. (Sport Canada Core Support Program 1988-89:69)

The Executive Director provides leadership, consultation or advice as required or directed toward the accomplishment of objectives in the areas of organizational infrastructure and operation and administrative support for all programs for which the NSO is responsible. The Executive Director makes resource allocations within the bounds of approved policy and budget and an agreed workplan. The Executive Director is generally accountable for the achievement of agreed performance objectives to either the Director General or, where there is no Director General, the designated elected official in the NSO. The Executive Director is formally accountable to the Board of Directors. (Sport Canada Core Contribution Program 1988-89:69)

Although the duties of the Executive Directors vary from one national sport organization to another, in general their responsibilities include managing the Association on a day to day basis; carrying out policies established by the Executive and

Board; and providing administrative assistance to the Executive members. (Mitchelson, 1977; Pugliese and Taylor, 1977)

Thus, an NSO may have both an Executive Director and a Director General. Generally the Executive Director serves as the Chief Administrative Officer, whereas the Director General fulfills the role of both the Chief Administrative and Chief Executive Officer. The Director General also has the authority to determine policy. Both the Executive Director and the Director General are accountable to the Board of Directors. In a small number of organizations, the High Performance or Technical Director may be the Chief Administrative Officer. For the purposes of this paper, the term Chief Executive Officer (CEO) will denote the most senior professional staff manager in the organizational hierarchy, responsible for administering the business affairs of the NSO and; generally, the individual responsible for policy development. However, the survey instrument will distinguish between the Director General and Executive Director positions.

Goldfarb (1986) believes that the professional staff, and the Executive Director or Chief Executive Officer in particular, play an important role in the organization as they possess a national perspective in an organization made up primarily of volunteers with regionally based interests. The Executive Director also provides organizational continuity due to the often temporary status of the volunteers.

The position of the Executive Director or Chief Executive Officer in N.S.O.'s has been predominately held by men. Research

commissioned by the Government of Canada has indicated that women are under represented in the executive and senior decision-making positions in sport, both as volunteers and employees. (Women in Sport, 1986)

The ratio of men to women in the position of an NSO Chief Executive Officer has increased from a figure of eighty-four percent men and sixteen percent women in 1980, to seventy-six percent men and twenty-four percent women in 1985. However, most women who hold positions as Chief Executive Officers were employed by the national sport organizations with smaller operating budgets.

In 1985, female executive officers were employed by forty-five percent of the organizations with budgets under \$500,000, forty-five percent of the organizations with budgets between \$500,000 and \$1,000,000, and by only six percent of those organizations with budgets of over \$1,000,000.

A similar increase in female representation in the positions of Technical Director and Coach, did not occur between 1980-1985. (Women in Sport and Fitness Leadership, 1985:4-5)

Riley (1987) found that seventy-five percent of the female CEO's that handled budgets exceeding one million dollars were single (never married) compared to a general average of forty-seven percent single (never married) for female chief executive officers. Eighty-seven percent of the female CEO's are between the ages of thirty and thirty-nine. (Riley, 1987)

Volunteer Executives

Beamish (1978) found most national sport organization executives were generally male, with a socio-economic status higher than the national average. The findings of Gruneau and Hollands (1978), compiled over a twenty year period, concur with those of Beamish (1978) and found volunteer executives to be mostly male and of high socio-economic status, thirty to fifty years old and anglophone. A 1985 study on women in sport and fitness leadership at the national level found that twenty-one percent of the members of boards or executive committees were women. (Women in Sport and Fitness Leadership, 1985)

Goldfarb (1986), in a demographic profile of NSO and Provincial Sport Organization (PSO) volunteers and professional staff, found that both groups were primarily composed of males and highly educated (90 percent of the volunteers and 93 percent of professional staff had college or university education). The volunteers tended to: (1) be slightly older in age than the professionals with an average age of forty-three and thirty-seven respectively; (2) be more likely to be married and have children than the professional staff (eighty-three per cent of the volunteers were married compare to sixty-four percent of the professionals and seventy-five percent of the volunteers had children while only fifty-nine percent of the professionals had children); and (3) have a slightly higher household income than the professional staff. It was also noted that eighty-one percent

of the volunteers work at a paying job on a full time basis.
(Goldfarb, 1986: 6)

Goldfarb (1986) also determined that NSO professional staff work forty-eight hours per week and that volunteers volunteer approximately eleven hours of their time to their sport on a weekly basis.

Macdonald (1988) noted that NSO CEO's were young; seventy-two percent were thirty-nine years of age or younger; well educated, with ninety percent having an undergraduate degree and forty-four percent had graduate degrees. The median salary range was between \$30,000-\$39,000.

Neill (1983) and Mitchelson (1977) have also noted a rapid "burn-out" rate for volunteers and professional staff, with an average expectancy of two to three years. (Mitchelson, 1977, 2) Neill (1983) has suggested that the high turnover of professional staff has resulted from mediocre salaries, heavy work demands, lack of opportunity for advancement and the sometimes frustrating experience of working with volunteers. Mitchelson et al. (1977) has suggested that an improvement in the personal effectiveness of the volunteers and professional staff would improve the organizational effectiveness of the national sport organizations.

The research of Macdonald (1988) confirms Neill and Mitchelson's findings, in which he found that in 1987, sixty percent of the CEO's had been in their present position for three years or less and ninety percent had been in their position for six

years or less. Macdonald found, however, that the CEO's were relatively satisfied with the different facets of their jobs.

Financial Environment

Most organizations are financially dependent on the federal government, receiving approximately seventy percent of their revenue from federal funds. (Sport Marketing Council, 1986) Since the 1985 announcement by the then Minister of Fitness and Amateur Sport, Otto Jelinek, of an ambitious plan for a fifty-fifty ratio of federal funding to revenue generated by the NSO's by 1988, it is estimated that the federal government contribution has been reduced to approximately fifty-five percent in 1988. This is due, in part, to the marketing success of several of the larger, high profile organizations.

The national sport organizations, with varying degrees of success, have attempted to increase their income from the private sector and decrease their dependency on the Federal Government. (Neill, 1983) The Sport Marketing Council was initiated in 1985 to assist the NSO's to develop marketing skills and marketing programs. Specifically, the Council's goal is "to help to create a solid understanding and relationship between the business community and fitness and amateur sport associations so that the associations' properties are accepted as viable additions or alternatives to the traditional advertising, sales promotion and communications media." (Sport Marketing Council, 1985:2) To further this end, fifty per cent of Slack and Hinings (1987) NSO

sample had appointed a volunteer to be responsible for the marketing of the sport.

Political Environment

The political environment in which the NSO's must operate is ever changing. Federal government policies for sport change as public pressure mounts, as the economic climate changes, as the government as a whole enter into agreements with other countries, as the federal Ministers for Fitness and Amateur Sport change, or as the political persuasion of the federal government is altered.

The Federal Government has clearly stated that its funding priority would be the pursuit of excellence in domestic and international sport. (Government of Canada, 1979) However, the high turnover of the Ministers of Fitness and Amateur Sport, a total of nine Ministers in a nine year period, including the appointment of four different Ministers during 1984, has resulted in various interpretations of this mandate. The March 1988 policy statement by Otto Jelinek, then Minister of Fitness and Amateur Sport, placing a greater emphasis upon domestic development after a three year period of emphasis on high performance excellence is evidence of this everchanging environment.

Pressure to be competitive in the international arena coupled with a lack of financial resources has produced an environment of considerable uncertainty for national sport organizations. (Government of Canada, 1979) The federal government is able to exert a considerable influence on the goals and directives of the NSO's due to the mere proportion of NSO's budgets provided by Sport

and Fitness Canada and its discretionary control over funding.
(Frisby, 1984)

The international counterparts of the national sport organizations and other multi-sport organizations such as the Canadian Olympic Association, also have the authority to develop policies and change locations and eligibility requirements of events which influence the direction of the NSO's. The words of Iona Campagnolo, then Minister of Fitness and Amateur Sport, further emphasizes these environmental influences which affect the NSO's.

..The essential characteristic of the sport world is constant change. The number of elements acting on NSOs from the environment is considerable.

(Government of Canada, 1979:8)

The work of Ulrich (1987), in the general sport environment, has supported this thesis and purports that the degree and rate of transformations within sport has increased and has stated that the management of transformations had become a major agenda of sport administrators at all levels. (Ulrich, 1987:193)

Since 1981 the Federal Government has also been requiring increased operating efficiency and financial responsibility from the NSO's. Gerald Reagan, then Minister of Fitness and Amateur Sport, stated that the priority for funding consideration would be given to those sports that have a commitment to excellence and who continually demonstrate technical, administrative, and financial maturity. (Government of Canada, 1981:10) The development of the Quadrennial Planning Process, which includes the development of

administrative, technical and financial plans, is a direct effect of this initiative. (Sport Canada Core Support Contribution Guidelines, 1988-89)

NSO Structure

Slack and Hinings (1987) have suggested that most national sport organizations are relatively simple structures.

They are systematized, but mostly only in a relatively non-complex manner. The exception to this is the area of decision making, which is generally ad hoc rather than systematically structured.

(Slack and Hinings, 1987:14,25)

The national sport organizations show a variety of organizational forms. While there is a general trend in national sport organizations towards professionalization and bureaucratization, Slack and Hinings (1987) contend that very few are fully developed professional bureaucracies. Slack and Hinings (1987) have suggested that the quadrennial plans of olympic national sport organizations have illustrated an aim to increase the extent to which organizations are professionalised and bureaucratized.

For many organizations this will mean considerable change. For many organizations this type of organizational transformation may be difficult. Consequently, it is important to understand the factors involved in transformations.

(Slack and Hinings, 1987:25)

Research by Frisby (1984) has suggested that national sport organizations that are more bureaucratic are more likely to be effective.

The 1988 Task Force Report acknowledges the increasing complexity of the sport system in Canada and the need for sophisticated leadership.

Volunteers will always be essential to the direction and delivery of the sport system, but as the system grows in magnitude and complexity, the leadership and management of the system will be provided by professionally trained full-time sport managers and technical staff responsible to their volunteer Board of Directors.

(Task Force Report, 1988:31)

Furthermore, it was recommended that the responsibilities for policy formulation be revised to that where the professional staff would provide the primary leadership in the process of policy development and implementation. (Task Force Report, 1988:30)

Neill (1983) believes that national sport organizations utilize a hierarchical authority structure with the volunteer President as the head of the organization. The level of authority and responsibilities of the professional staff varies between organizations, based upon organizational structure and, as a result, type of professional staff employed.

In an analysis of the decision making process of national sport organizations, Slack and Hinings (1987) identified a five level hierarchy:

1. Outside of the Organization (ie. Sport Canada)
2. Board/Executive
3. Subject Committees/Vice-Presidents
4. 1st Level Professionals (Executive and Technical Directors and Coaches)
5. 2nd Level Professionals (Program Coordinators)

(Slack and Hinings, 1987:13)

Slack and Hinings (1987) concluded that there was formal volunteer decision making control in the majority of the NSO's in their sample. The decision making generally involved two levels within the hierarchy - the subject committees/vice-presidents and the Board/Executive. Furthermore, the decision making process was generally decentralized from the Board or Executive Committee to their Subject Committees or Vice-Presidents. (Slack and Hinings, 1987) However these results could be slightly skewed as the majority of decisions in Slack and Hinings (1987) research dealt with high performance/competitive decisions. It is suspected that administrative decisions would further involve the Board/Executive. (This also implies that most of the organizations in Slack and Hinings study were not corporate model structures.)

Staff-Volunteer Conflict

Slack and Hinings (1987) have also determined that approximately half of the national sport organizations in their sample, exhibited medium to high conflict between the volunteers and professionals. This conflict is generally over control. Goldfarb (1986) has purported that the desire of the professional staff to have more input into the policy process, in contrast to the desire of volunteers to maintain control over this, should not be interpreted as an attempt by the professional staff to usurp the volunteers' responsibilities, but rather it is a response to the increased bureaucratization and complexity of NSO's.

Goldfarb (1986) has suggested that the volunteers and professional staff members disagree as to the degree of friction

which exists between the two groups. Fifty-three percent of the professionals felt that there was some friction between the two groups compared to thirty-eight percent of the volunteers. Sixty-seven percent of the volunteers believed that the conflict occurred due to decision-making, formation and implementation of policies, and lack of communication and guidelines delineating the roles of and responsibilities of the volunteers and professional staff. (Goldfarb, 1986:55-57)

Goldfarb (1986) concluded that the problem of division of responsibilities between the volunteers and professional staff in policy formulation is not a problem which will be easily addressed.

...The problem is inherent in the very nature of an organization directed by volunteers and staffed by professionals. The tensions evident can be expected to increase over time as sport governing bodies grow in size and face increasingly complex demands.
(Goldfarb, 1986:4)

Goldfarb (1986) also found that there was disagreement between the volunteers and the professionals as to who played the larger role in directing the organization and administration of the sport. Goldfarb determined that the NSO volunteers generally felt that they played a larger role in running the sport than did the professional staff. However, the professional staff was more evenly split as to whether the professionals or the volunteers controlled the organization. As such, this question was added to the demographic portion of the survey.

Slack and Hinings (1987) have suggested that as a result of this lack of clarity of roles and conflict over control, plan or

vision implementation may be problematic as managing conflict will take precedence over managing the content of the plan or vision. Neill (1983), has recommended that NSO's should (1) ensure that boundary spanning responsibilities of both volunteers and professional staff are clearly delineated in job descriptions; (2) recruit competent and skilful individuals as administrators and leaders; and (3) NSO's should gain knowledge of impending changes as a result of environmental influences and attempt to bring about these changes under their own conditions prior to being forced to change by external factors. (Neill, 1983:129-130) The conclusions of Goldfarb (1986) support Neill's findings.

Organizational Typologies

Katz and Kahn (1966) have stated that every organization has an executive system for carrying out policies and implementation of administrative decisions. Katz and Kahn (1966) have further classified systems as democratic or authoritarian.

... The essential difference between a democratic and authoritarian system is not whether executive officers order or consult with those below, but whether the power to legislate is vested in the membership or in the top echelons.

(Katz and Kahn, 1966:45)

Taylor (1976) has suggested that national sport organizations are democratic organizations. However, as noted by Slack and Hinings (1987) and Frisby (1986), there is a general trend towards greater bureaucratization of the national sport organizations occurring. The role of the volunteer is gradually changing from one of decision making on a day to day matters to one of policy making with few

implementation responsibilities. (Pugliese and Conklin, 1976) The increase in the number of Directors General, Presidents and Executive Vice-Presidents from one in 1983 to sixteen in 1988, is evidence of the increased bureaucratization and authoritization of the national sport organizations.

The evolution of the Canadian Interuniversity Athletic Union, although not a single sport organization, illustrates this process.

... The CIAU has seen a shift in decision making power from the General Assembly, which represented the individual member institutions, to the Board of Directors representing the various associations, and ultimately to the executive director, who at the beginning of this era assumed the title executive vice-president. The CIAU in its brief organizational history has shifted from a loose, voluntary, mutual-benefit or service organization to a highly dominate, controlling, arms-length grown corporation.

(Holman-Prpich and Morarity, 1987:67)

The 1988 Task Force Report has recommended that the NSO's should assume a greater role in the sport system.

... The NSO's should be positioned as the key agencies for the development, promotion, and governance of their respective sports, with a national mandate to provide a full range of services to their members, constituents, and the general public - from the technical high performance support needed for international teams to the community service type services inherent in the development of mass sport.

(Task Force Report, 1988:31)

Thus the future role of the NSO's may be even larger and require the development of further organizational management systems. This recommended increase in growth will however be largely dependent upon the attainment of federal funds in a time of economic constraint.

Neill (1983) has stated that a review of literature indicates that there is no typology or classification system for national sport organizations. However, several researchers have incorporated national sport organizations into existing organizational typologies.

Slack (1979) classified national sport organizations based upon the Blau and Scott (1962) typology. Blau and Scott (1962) classified organizations as mutual benefit (benefitting all the membership), business concerns (benefiting the owners or managers), service organizations (benefiting the clients) and commonweal organizations (benefiting the public at large). Blau and Scott (1962) have argued that although several groups may benefit from an organization, one group can be identified as the prime beneficiary. Slack (1979) classified national sport organizations as mutual benefit organizations.

In some cases, the general public may benefit from the efforts of the sport association, however, it is principally the membership which is the prime beneficiary.

(Slack, 1979:24)

Gameron (1986) has suggested that organizations must accommodate the expectations of other groups, although they may be inconsistent with the needs of the prime beneficiary.

Beamish (1978) and Bratton (1970) have classified national sport organizations using Gordon and Babchuk's (1959) classification of voluntary organizations. Based upon their function, Gordon and Babchuk (1959) classified organizations as instrumental or expressive. Instrumental organizations have goals

outside the organization and attempt to alter a condition in society beyond the immediate membership. Expressive organizations perform functions for the participants and coordinate activities within the organization. (Neill, 1963) Bratton (1970) classified national sport organizations as instrumental-expressive and Beamish (1978), instrumental.

Challadurai (1985) has classified organizations as (1) goods versus services; (2) public versus private sector; (3) professional versus consumer services; and (4) volunteer. Clement (1987), in a review of Challadurai's work has suggested that the categories should not be mutually exclusive and posits that volunteer organizations, such as national sport organizations are a constituent of one or more of the other categories. Neill (1983) developed a descriptive-analytical model of national sport organizations, based upon systems theory to describe the operation of national sport organizations.

There appears to be no consistency or agreement upon the general classification of national sport organizations.

NSO Effectiveness/Sport Recognition System

Frisby's (1984,1986) examination of organizational effectiveness of national sport organizations, found that the national sport organizations effectiveness ranking, based upon the NSOs olympic ranking and the number of countries competing, and the total operating budget were positively and significantly correlated. (Frisby, 1986:94) Frisby (1986) concluded that elite amateur sport organizations which were more successful at acquiring

scarce financial resources were also more successful at achieving goals of performance excellence.

In her dissertation, Frisby also examined (1) world ranking (or average world ranking if the national sport organization had more than one Olympic Team), (2) changes in world rankings since the most recent world championship, and (3) the increase in financial support each national sport organization received from Fitness and Amateur Sport from 1970-1982, in addition to the beforementioned factors. These factors were not deemed to be significant. Frisby (1986) has warned, however, that national sport organizations which achieve high performance goals are more likely to attract corporate sponsorship which would increase the total operating budget. Frisby (1986) also recommended that future research should consider goals other than performance excellence, specifically domestic sport considerations.

The Sport Recognition System, formally implemented by Sport Canada in 1985, is a method of ranking the national sport organizations. The Sport Recognition Policy has two major purposes:

- (1) To articulate clearly the minimum standards a national sport organization must meet in order to be recognized by Sport Canada; and
 - (2) To set out a system of objective standards for both high performance sport and domestic sport which permit NSOs to be ranked relative to objective criteria and thus, relative to each other.
- (Sport Canada Core Contribution Guidelines, 1988-89:5)

Single sport NSOs are classified according to a high performance ranking (1-4), a domestic sport ranking (1-4), and a combined ranking (1-4), culminating in four Olympic and four Non-Olympic Sport Categories, with category 1 being the highest. A separate ranking system has been developed for disabled sport NSOs. Due to their unique nature, the multi-sport NSOs are not ranked on the system, and are dealt with on an individual basis by Sport Canada. As a general principle, the more highly ranked the sport in either or both of the domestic and high performance areas, the greater its funding level. Specific classification details are cited in Appendix A.

The Sport Recognition System is a continuation of Frisby's (1986) effectiveness rating as it not only considers the elite performance results and number of countries competing, but also a domestic rating.

Slack and Hinings (1987), in an examination of the Quadrennial Planning Process, cited two major areas of concern: (1) preparation of high performance athletes and (2) activities concerned with professional staff. Challadurai, Szyszlo and Haggerty (1986) found that output - elite performance and input-human resources were the most important set of effectiveness dimensions.

Thus Frisby (1986) has suggested that the variables of the high performance effectiveness rating and total operating budget are highly correlated. It is suggested that the Sport Recognition System classification would be a more complete rating due to its consideration of the domestic sport component. The work of

Challadurai, Szyszlo and Haggerty (1986) and Slack and Hinning (1987) also suggests that high performance results are the most important output. Challadurai, Szyszlo and Haggerty (1986) and slack and Hinning (1987) also concur that human resources and in particular leadership (Jamieson, 1987) is the other integral component. Therefore, this study will examine the presence of visionary and transactional leadership, its relationship to the Sport Recognition System, and other categorical variables. As Slack and Hinings (1987) have noted, many national sport organizations will have to transform their organizations in the upcoming quadrennial. Strong leadership, particularly visionary leadership, will be required to complete this task.

Neill (1983) has noted that research studies involving national sport organizations are minimal and has criticized that those which have been completed, have dealt with isolated topics or a small number of national sport organizations. Parkhouse and Ulrich (1979) have stated that there is a need to (1) develop theory in sport management, and (2) apply the theoretical knowledge which has been established in related disciplines to the sport setting. (Parkhouse and Ulrich, 1979:59)

Summary

The review of effective leader behaviour literature has illustrated that the theoretical propositions of Sashkin's Visionary Leadership Framework are consistent with previous and contemporary leadership research. Hence the Visionary Leadership Framework, which considers the person, situation, and behaviour,

is not a completely new theory, but rather a refinement and compilation of previous research and theory.

This study will be based upon the national sport organization specific research of Frisby (1984, 1986), Neill (1983), Slack and Hinings (1987), Challadurai (1985) and Challadurai, Szyszlo and Haggerty (1986) and the theory specific work of Sashkin (1985, 1986, 1987, 1988), Sashkin and Fulmer (1985, 1986), Bennis (1984), and Tichy and Devanna (1986), which has only been applied in the fields of business and education. Thereby, this study will address the concerns of Parkhouse and Ulrich (1979) in that it will focus upon

CHAPTER THREE

RESEARCH DESIGN

This study will examine the variables relevant to the presence and characteristics of transactional and visionary leadership. The study will determine which factors are important in determining visionary leadership of Chief Executive Officers and Presidents of National Sport Organizations and examine whether there is a direct relationship between NSO classification in the Sport Recognition System, role and job classification, and the presence of visionary leadership.

This chapter will discuss the research design of the study, including the: (1) population and sample; (2) data collection procedure; (3) instrumentation; (4) statistical procedure; and (5) interview methodology.

Population and Sample

The population for this study was the Chief Executive Officer (CEO), or the most senior professional staff position (CEO) and the President, or highest ranking elected volunteer, of the National Sport Organizations (NSOs) recognized by Sport Canada's Sport Recognition System, and resident in the National Sport and Recreation Centre. A total of fifty-eight NSOs fulfil the above criteria. As such, the sample was a deliberate, non-random selection. However, at the time of the distribution of the survey, five CEO positions were vacant or the CEO had been employed by the

NSO for less than one month, thereby reducing the total possible CEO responses to fifty-three.

Data Collection Procedure

Permission to conduct this study was solicited from Abby Hoffman, Director General of Sport Canada; Hugh Glynn, President of the National Sport and Recreation Centre (NSRC); and from the LBQ author, Marshall Sashkin. (Appendix B)

Copies of the LBQ (Self) were distributed by first class mail to the NSO Presidents. The completed questionnaires were returned to the researcher at her home address. Copies of the LBQ (Self) were distributed by the NSRC inter-office mail system to the NSO CEO's. The completed questionnaires were returned to the researcher at her office address by the NSRC inter-office mail system. A stamped, self-addressed envelope, marked "Personal", accompanied each LBQ.

Each mailing contained a cover letter explaining the purpose of the study. The importance of both honesty in response as well as importance in completion of each item of the LBQ was stressed. (A copy of the cover letter is cited in Appendix C.). Anonymity of the results was guaranteed. No individual CEO's or President's results would be reported, rather the results would be discussed in aggregates. The responses were coded to identify the non-respondents.

The first letter of reminder was circulated to the non-respondents approximately three weeks after the initial mailing. (A copy of the letter is cited in Appendix C.) A second letter of

reminder was sent to both the CEO's and Presidents after five weeks, and a third reminder to the CEO's. Babbie (1973) has stated that the methodological literature on follow-up mailings strongly suggests that this is an effective method for increasing return rates for mail surveys.

Babbie has further suggested that a response rate of fifty percent is adequate for analysis and reporting; sixty percent is good; and a response rate of seventy percent is very good.

A summary report of the results will be provided to each NSO CEO and President upon request.

A pilot test of the LBQ instrument (1986 edition) was conducted with eight Level 4 squash coaching candidates. The respondents completed the instrument and calculated their scores for the LBQ in twenty minutes or less. There were no queries regarding the meaning of the LBQ questions. The respondents in this study were not required to score their questionnaires.

Instrumentation

The primary research instrument used for the quantitative component of this study was the Leader Behaviour Questionnaire (Self). (Sashkin, 1985(c), 1987(c))

A second instrument was used to determine the categorical or demographic information. Nelson (1985) entitles these items pre-existing differences. (A copy of these instruments are cited in Appendix C.)

The LBQ is a self administered questionnaire in which respondents are offered a Likert-type five point scale, yielding

scores from one to five, to indicate the extent to which the respondents perceived that they exhibited the instrument indices or characteristics.

The respondents were presented with statements in the questionnaire, and were asked to indicate whether they believe the statements are "completely true", "mostly true", "somewhat true", "a little true", or are "not at all true". Each question was stated as a measure of the extent the leader engages in the behaviours or generates that emotional response or feeling, with the most favourable scores given a weight of five and the least favourable, a weight of one. (Sashkin and Fulmer, 1985) The instrument questions are close-ended and elicit mutually exclusive responses.

Respondents were assigned a total score for each indice which represented the summation of the scores received for the responses to the individual items of that indice.

The Likert method is based on the assumptions that: (1) the overall score reflects the variables under consideration and provides a reasonably good measure of the variable; and (2) each item has the same intensity. (Babbie, 1973)

A total of fifteen indices were examined; ten indices from the 1986 LBQ and five indices from the 1988 edition. In the 1987 and 1988 editions the transactional leadership indices and the sixth visionary indice, Follower Centered Leadership, were deleted and replaced by five additional visionary indices. In addition to the fifteen indices, five major key scores (Transactional Score,

Visionary 88A - Leadership Character Score, Visionary 88B - Culture Building Score, Visionary 88C - Leadership Behaviour Score, and the Visionary 88D - Total Visionary Score, were also examined. Each key score consisted of the sum of several indices. The evaluation norms for the indices and key scores are cited in Appendix D.

Each LBQ indice was composed of five questions. Babbie (1973) has suggested that to improve indice validity, multiple question indices should be used. Single item indices are likely to misrepresent some of the respondents in the study and may not adequately measure the variable.

The following description of the ten 1986 and five 1987 indices are cited in the LBQ Interpretative Guide (1985, 1987, 1988):

Index 1: Focused Leadership (Items 1, 11, 21, 31, 41)

Bennis found that effective visionary executives paid especially close attention to people with whom they were communicating. They "focused in" on the key issues under discussion and helped others to see these issues clearly. They had clear ideas about the relative importance or priority of different issues under discussion. Overall, this factor comes together as the ability to manage one's attention and to direct the attention of others.

Index 2: Communication Leadership (Items 2, 12, 22, 32, 42)

This is a very tightly related set of items that centres on the leader's communication skills; specifically the ability to get the meaning of a message across, even if this means devising some innovative approach. Also included is attention to and appreciation for feelings; both one's own and the other person's, as those feelings are an important part of the message being communicated.

Index 3: Trust Leadership (Items 3, 13, 23, 33, 43)

The key factor here is the leader's perceived trustworthiness, as shown by willingness to: take clear positions; avoid "flip-

flop" shifts in position; follow through on commitments. This factor refers to the leader's ability to show steadiness or reliability in matters of trust.

Index 4: Respectful Leadership (Items 4, 14, 24, 34, 44)

This index concerns the leader's general attitudes toward self and others in their daily actions. That is, the leader's overall concern for others and their feelings, as well as "taking care of " feelings about self in a positive sense (eg. self-regard). This index includes the leader's sense of how he or she fits into the organization, now and in the future.

Index 5: Risk Leadership (Items 5, 15, 25, 35, 45)

Effective visionary leaders are deeply involved in what they do. They do not spend excessive amounts of time or energy on plans to protect themselves against failure. These leaders are willing to take risks, not on a hit-or-miss basis, but after careful estimation of the odds of success or failure. Their energy is then invested in action, and this is obvious from the way they enjoy what they are doing. Visionary leaders design risks (challenging opportunities) that others can "buy into" so that they can participate in making the leader's vision real.

Index 6: Follower-Centered Leadership (Items 6, 16, 26, 36, 46)

Bennis found that the behaviours of visionary leaders, as measured by the first five indices, seem to generate consistently a set of feelings in followers. Followers feel that their work becomes more meaningful and that they are the "masters" of their own behaviour. That is, they feel competent. They feel a sense of community with their colleagues and co-workers. Finally, they report that they enjoy working for this person, the effective visionary leader. All of these come together in the leader's concern for followers.

Index 7: Supportive Management (Items 7, 17, 27, 37, 47)

Support refers to the leader's personal concern for employees and for the relationship between leader and employee. This implies a sensitivity to the feelings of employees, as well as the behavioral effort of paying attention to and thus showing a real concern for their expressed problems and feelings on a one-to-one basis.

Index 8: Goal-Oriented Management (Items 8, 18, 28, 38, 48)

This dimension concerns task-related leadership behaviours, with a focus on working with employees to develop specific, high performance goals. Through his or her own achievements and by rewarding the achievements of employees, the leader behaviourally demonstrates a commitment to high performance. Employees are quite clear as to what level of performance is expected of them by the leader.

Index 9: Task-Centered Management (Items 9, 19, 29, 39, 49)

In other leadership approaches, this dimension is folded in with Goal-Centered Management. Although equally focused on the task, Goal-Centered Management is quite different. Task-Centered Management behaviour includes: attending to supplies; coordination; the working environment; and the typical administrative, task-relevant duties of the manager. It also involves task-related coaching activities; helping employees deal with and resolve work problems, and improve their skills.

Index 10: Team Management (Items 10, 20, 30, 40, 50)

This index measures how well the leader encourages teamwork among employees and actively uses the team approach to management that Likert and his associates found to be strongly related to effectiveness. This means, for example, holding team meetings and encouraging workers to meet with and help one another whenever they have task problems that involve others. This kind of team building is essential for the full development of the potential productive interaction among employees.

(Sashkin, 1985(c): 2-4, 1988(b):10)

Index 11: Bottom-Line Leadership (Items 51, 56, 61, 66, 71)

Visionary leaders believe that they can make a difference and have a significant impact on people, events and organizations. They believe they can have an impact or effect on the final "bottom-line" outcomes of the organization.

Index 12: Empowered Leadership (Items 52, 57, 62, 67, 72)

Visionary leaders want power in order to use it to influence and empower organization members to attain goals that are part of or will help build the leader's vision. Visionary leaders believe that power and influence should be all levels, not just exerted at the top. In an effective organization, everyone feels that they have a lot of influence, particularly over their job.

Index 13: Long Term Leadership (Items 53, 58, 63, 68, 75)

Visionary leaders have a relatively long time perspective and a relatively broad view of the organization and its environment. They are able to explain their long range views to others and can see how their visions may be extended and expanded.

Index 14: Organizational Leadership (Items, 54, 59, 64, 69, 73)

Visionary leaders understand the bureaucratic-structural activities that we normally think of as the core of management, and they usually can do these things well, but their "real" job is not that of an administrator, it is that of a leader bent on bringing about his or her vision by taking a hands-on approach to the organizational culture. Four key functions are necessary for the establishment of culture: (1) adapting; (2) attaining goals; (3) coordinating the activities of individuals and groups; and (4) maintaining a stable set of values, beliefs, and norms of behaviour that will keep organizational members acting in such a manner as to have a positive effect on adapting, attaining goals, and working with others. These will improve organizational functioning and lay the foundation for their vision.

Index 15: Cultural Leadership (Items 55, 60, 65, 70, 74)

An organizational culture is defined by the stable set of shared values and beliefs held by its membership. Visionary leaders understand that their real task is culture-building. Visionary leaders try to determine the extent to which values and beliefs exist that support the four functions. This item assesses the strength of values that support functional effectiveness. Building culture will help build and support the leader's vision.

(Sashkin, 1988(b): 8-11)

When the 1986 and 1988 editions of the LBQ are combined, the LBQ contains four types of measures:

- (1) The extent to which the respondent uses visionary leadership behaviours (Indices 1-5) - Visionary Leadership Behaviour Score (VIS 88C);
- (2) The degree to which the respondent has the personal characteristics of visionary leaders (Indices 11-13) - Visionary Leadership Characteristics Score (VIS 88A);
- (3) The nature of the organizational culture in which the respondent is attempting to exercise leadership (Indices 14-15) - Visionary Culture

- (4) The extent to which the respondent uses transactional leadership behaviours (Indices 7-10) - Transactional Score.

(Sashkin, 1987(d): 2, 1988(a): 6-8)

Sashkin (1987(d)) has stated that the ten indices of the 1986 edition of the LBQ are reliable and accurate. However, the indices included in the 1987 edition have not undergone the statistical rigor of the 1985 edition.

The personal characteristic measures (indices 11-13), are intended as a spur to self-understanding and self-assessment, not as accurate psychological measures. The cultural measures (indices 14-15) are derived from a fifty question instrument, the Organizational Culture Questionnaire (OCQ).

(Sashkin, 1987(d): 2-3)

However, each indice is based upon a complete questionnaire (ie. OCQ) which has been proven to be reliable and valid. The 1988 edition of the LBQ further refines these indices. The content of the indices has remained the same, but the phraseology has been altered, after study with a number of respondents to more clearly reflect the desired measure.

The LBQ, 1986 edition, was used by Sashkin in four independent samples including: (1) eighteen mid-level managers in a large rural electric utility organization; (2) twenty-one (twenty males) "plant manager level" managers of a large manufacturing company (consumer and industrial products); (3) twenty-four upper mid-level managers (twenty-one males) from various organizations in an executive MBA program in a large American urban university; and (4) thirty lower-mid level managers (twenty-five males) in a part-time, evening MBA program in a large metropolitan area.

From these samples, Sashkin and Fulmer (1985) have prepared LBQ norms (Table 1) and reliability coefficients (Table 2).

The results of the analysis of variance on each indice for the four samples were consistent and illustrated that sample 3 ranked the highest, sample 4 next, and sample 1 was the lowest for the "self" data, across seven of the ten indices. Sample 1 was always the lowest. Several of the differences were significant. Similarly, in the "other" data, sample 4 was consistently the highest, and sample 1 the lowest, with these differences generally significant. (Valley, 1987) In no cases were significant effects detected, in the "self" or "other" data, on the indices within samples. (Sashkin and Fulmer, 1985)

From the two samples from which "self" and "other" data were available, analyses were conducted to determine if there were any differences between "self" and "other" reports. In sample 1, significant differences were found for "focus" (indice 1) and "risk" (indice 5), with others reporting higher levels of behaviour. In sample 4, significant differences were found for "focus" (indice 1), "communication" (indice 2), and "respectfully" (formerly entitled "self") (indice 4). There were no significant differences on the four managerial/transactional leadership scales. (Sashkin and Fulmer, 1985: 49) Thus in general, there was consistency between the "self" and "other" reports.

The fact that so few differences appeared lead Sashkin and Fulmer (1985) to suggest that the differences may be due to a general tendency toward under-estimation by the "self" respondents.

Table 1 - Leadership Behaviour Questionnaire Norms

Sample	N	Focus	Communication	Trust	Respect	Risk	Charismatic Affect	Support	Goal Emphasis	Work Facilitation	Team Facilitation
		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
I: Self	18	16.4 1.65	17.6 2.57	19.3 2.27	20.7 2.33	18.1 2.75	18.5 2.48	20.3 1.64	16.9 2.05	17.8 2.18	18.6 3.33
Other	36	18.2 1.98	18.5 4.00	18.2 3.24	20.3 3.21	15.9 2.33	18.6 3.11	19.1 2.69	16.3 1.75	17.2 2.64	17.6 3.69
II: Self	21	18.3 1.83	18.6 2.34	18.9 1.91	21.4 1.84	19.2 2.31	18.7 2.19	20.0 2.50	18.0 1.62	18.0 2.24	20.7 2.80
Other	42	18.5 1.89	20.0 2.83	19.7 2.00	21.9 2.11	18.1 2.55	18.8 2.72	20.1 3.05	17.9 2.75	18.0 2.34	20.0 3.23
III: Self	24	18.0 1.91	19.2 2.41	20.5 1.21	22.0 2.36	18.5 1.59	19.8 2.58	19.5 2.11	18.6 1.82	18.5 1.64	19.7 3.48
IV: Self	30	17.3 2.23	19.2 2.51	20.2 2.09	21.0 2.36	18.9 2.26	19.7 2.24	20.4 2.80	17.1 2.70	18.5 2.29	19.8 3.31
Other	30	18.0 2.04	21.2 2.86	20.3 2.81	22.6 2.61	19.1 2.45	19.3 2.07	21.2 2.49	16.6 2.47	19.1 2.96	20.8 2.69
All Self	72	17.3 2.06	18.8 2.55	20.1 1.93	21.2 2.30	18.5 2.19	19.5 2.45	20.1 2.33	17.5 2.37	18.4 2.06	19.4 3.36
Other	108	18.5 2.00	19.8 3.43	19.4 2.83	21.6 2.81	17.7 2.93	18.8 2.76	20.0 2.91	17.0 2.60	18.1 2.72	19.5 3.52

I: Mid-level managers in a rural electric utility; II: "Fant track" plant managers in an international manufacturing corporation (consumer and industrial products); III: Executive program MBA students, large urban university, southeast U.S.; IV: MBA students, evening/part-time program, large metropolitan area, mid-Atlantic U.S.

(Sashkin and Fulmer, 1985: 62)

Sashkin and Fulmer (1985) performed an item-scale reliability test for each of the ten indices and ran two factor analyses, one on the twenty-five visionary behaviour items, and one on the transactional leadership items. However, the authors have suggested that the sample N was not as large as would be desired for the "self" data for the factor analysis.

As illustrated in Table 2, the reliability analysis indicated that the coefficients showed reasonable reliability for eight of the ten indices, with only the "focus" scale (indice 1) illustrating "severe" problems. (Sashkin and Fulmer, 1985: 50) This scale has been revised in the LBQ edition used in this study.

In summary, the factor analysis yielded results that were modestly supportive of the transactional and visionary leadership indices. (Sashkin and Fulmer, 1985: 52)

Sashkin and Fulmer (1985) found that a clear positive relationship existed between the leaders' "self" reports of charismatic behaviours ($R = .638$, $p < .00001$), Follower-Centered Leadership, (indice 6) and "others'" reports ($R = .585$, $p < .00001$) of a charismatic affect towards the leader. (Sashkin and Fulmer, 1985:64)

In an attempt to control for same source bias, Sashkin (1986) has distributed the scale items throughout the questionnaire; same scale items were never adjacent; forty percent of the items were negatively worded; and they were sequenced to make positive or negative response bias extremely unlikely.

Table 2 - LBQ Reliability Coefficients
(Standardized Item Alpha)

INDEX	SELF	OTHER
1. FOCUS	.1810*	.2143\$
2. COMMUNICATION	.5926	.7863
3. TRUST	.4416	.6419
4. RESPECT	.5668	.7741
5. RISK	.1787#	.4716
6. CHARISMATIC AFFECT	.6216	.5804**
7. SUPPORT	.6120	.6480
8. GOAL EMPHASIS	.3561	.4215##
9. WORK FACILITATION	.3968+	.5857
10. TEAM FACILITATION	.7541	.7724

* Increases to .3963 when Item 11 is dropped.
 # Increases to .3338 when Item 25 is dropped.
 + Increases to .4797 when Item 9 is dropped.
 \$ Increases to .6049 when Item 11 is dropped.
 **Increases to .7900 when Item 36 is dropped.
 ##Increases to .6123 when Item 18 is dropped.

(Sashkin and Fulmer, 1985: 63)

Three recent doctoral dissertations by Major (1987), Stoner-Zemel, and Valley (1987) have further substantiated the reliability and validity of the LBQ.

Major (1987) administered the LBQ and Rokeach Dogmatism Scale to the principals of thirty high-performing high schools and thirty low-performing high schools as measured by the California Achievement Test. Major found that the principals of the high-performing schools scored significantly higher on the LBQ (Self) visionary leadership scales and were significantly more open minded than the principals of the low-performing schools.

Stoner-Zemel (1987) utilized the LBQ "other" and the LBA "other" (Blanchard's situational leadership assessment instrument), to assess data from three hundred and forty subordinates of one hundred and twenty-nine managers in a private firm which rebuilds and leases mainframe IBM computer equipment. Stoner-Zemel developed an instrument to assess the employees' perceptions of the work environment through eight dimensions or "Peak Performance Profile".

Stoner-Zemel found that: (1) the four transactional leadership scales yielded a strong relationship with the Peak Performance Profile; (2) the visionary leader behaviour scales of the LBQ were found to be significantly related to the employee's perception of the work environment; and (3) the presence or absence of visionary leader behaviour made a more significant difference than did the presence or absence of the situationally correct leadership (although both were significant).

Valley (1987) examined the relationship between leader behaviour of church pastors and church congregation growth. Valley found that pastors whose congregations had greater growth scored higher on nineteen out of the twenty comparisons of the visionary leadership dimensions than pastors of congregations with smaller growth, but found only one dimension to be significant. Valley (1987) contributed this small correlation between visionary leadership and church growth to the fact that the pastors did not have clear goals of congregational growth.

While Sashkin and Fulmer (1985) agreed that the LBQ required further refinement, the three studies by Major (1987), Valley (1987) and Stoner-Zemel (1987), in addition to several studies in progress, have deemed that the LBQ, 1986 edition, is a valid and reliable instrument, worthy of testing in an sport administration environment. This study will also examine the viability of the 1987/88 indices of the LBQ.

Statistical Procedure

As the sample for this study was based upon a deliberate, non-random selection, strictly speaking, tests of significance for inferential statistics cannot be applied to the findings discussed in the this study. Babbie (1973) has warned that researchers should be wary of applying tests of significance to data that represents a total population rather than a sample. As the researcher has not sampled, there is no chance that the association could be due to sampling error. Clover and Balsley (1979) have suggested that the association between two variables in the

population is a precise correlation, whether the degree of association is a substantially significant one. Babbie (1973) has further noted that the utilization of tests of significance in such a case, indicates that the probability that the relationship is a general one over time, and not just at the time of the survey.

Babbie (1973) has stated that the use of a Likert type index will elicit ordinal data. Most statistical procedures for the calculation of correlation coefficients assume that the data is interval. Babbie, however, supports the use of correlation coefficients with ordinal data:

...My personal orientation is to accept and even encourage the use of whatever statistical techniques help the researcher to understand the body of data under analysis. If the computation of correlation coefficients from ordinal data serves this purpose, then it should be strongly encouraged. However, I strongly object to making statistical inferences on the basis of such computations.

(Babbie, 1973:306)

Hinkle, Wiersma and Jurs (1979) have produced a chart, cited in Table 4, for the interpretation of the size of the correlation coefficient.

In each of the hypotheses in this study, an Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) will be used followed by a Multivariate Analysis of Variance (MANOVA) and Stepdown Analysis as required.

The purpose of ANOVA is to identify the sources of variance and the magnitude of their effect. ANOVA tests whether the mean differences among and within the groups are likely to have occurred by chance, or whether the changes in the independent variable have produced changes in the dependent means. (Green and Lewis, 1986)

Table 3 - INTERPRETING THE SIZE
OF A CORRELATION COEFFICIENT

.90 to 1.00 (-.90 to -1.00)	Very high positive (negative) correlation
.70 to .90 (-.70 to -.90)	High positive (negative) correlation
.50 to .70 (-.50 to -.70)	Moderate positive (negative) correlation
.30 to .50 (-.30 to -.50)	Low positive (negative) correlation
.00 to .30 (.00 to -.30)	Little if any correlation

(Hinkle, Wiersma, and Jurs, 1979:85)

However, a significant F statistic indicates only that the population means are probably unequal. It does not pinpoint where the differences are. Multiple comparison procedures such as the Scheffe Post Hoc Test (1953) should then be used. The Scheffe is the most conservative of the popular methods in preventing Type 1 error. (Tabachnick & Fidell, 1983:43) The Post Hoc Test will identify which of the independent variable means differ significantly from the other means and indicate their order.

Multivariate Analysis of Variance investigates the differences among two or more levels of an independent variable in terms of their effect on a set of dependent variables. The MANOVA procedure deals with intercorrelations among the dependent variables. The advantage of MANOVA over a series of ANOVAs is in protection against Type 1 error. MANOVA may also reveal differences not shown in separate ANOVAs. Thus MANOVA, which considers dependent variables in combination, may sometimes be more powerful than separate ANOVAs. (Tabachnick & Fidell, 1983:222)

Stepdown Analysis provides "a resolution to the problems of inflated Type 1 error and the nonindependence of univariate F tests." (Tabachnick & Fidell, 1983:255) Stepdown Analysis requires that the dependent variables be prioritized in terms of theoretical and/or practical interest, with the most "interesting" variable being tested first. Each successive dependent variable is then tested with the higher priority dependent variables as covariants to determine if the dependent variable significantly adds to the

combination of dependent variables already tested. Subsequent tests are statistically independent, which adjusts to control Type 1 error. Stepdown Analysis allows individual alphas to be set at the same level or to set a higher alpha for a greater priority dependent variable. (Tabachnick & Fidell, 1983)

The degree of reliability required in a measure is dependent upon the use of the results. (Valley, 1987) Ary, Jacobs and Razavieh (1985) have suggested that if the results are to be used as the basis for making decisions about individuals, particularly when these decisions are irreversible, only instruments with a high reliability should be used. Ary, Jacobs and Razavieh (1985) have stated further that if the measurable results are to be used for making a decision about a group, as is the case in this study, or for research purposes, a lesser reliability coefficient, in the range of .30 to .50 could be appropriate. Cronbach's Alpha will be used as the test for reliability.

The SPSS-X statistical program (1989) was used in this study. The significance level of $p < .05$ was used unless otherwise indicated.

Hypothesis One

There will be no significant difference in the Transactional and Visionary Leadership scores of the N.S.O. Presidents and C.E.O's.

For Hypothesis One, the independent variable was the role group; CEO or President, and the dependent variables, the scores on the LBQ. An analysis of variance was used to compare the two groups

(Presidents and CEOs) on the fifteen indices. MANOVA will then be used to determine the inter-relationships between the variables. Subsequently the Roy-Bargmann Stepdown Analysis will be utilized to determine which variable(s) had the greatest effect. Hypothesis One is a test of Burns (1978) hypothesis which states that Visionary (Transformational) Leadership and Transactional Leadership are located on the opposite ends of the continuum.

Hypothesis Two

There will be no significant difference in the Visionary Leadership scores of the Director Generals and Executive Directors (job classification) as measured by the LBQ.

For Hypothesis Two, the independent variable was the job classification of the professional staff member, and the dependent variable, the Visionary scores on the LBQ. An analysis of variance (ANOVA) was be used.

Hypotheses Three

There will be no significant difference in the Visionary scores of the CEOs and Presidents and the N.S.O sport recognition system classification.

For Hypothesis Three, the independent variable was the NSO sport recognition system classification, and the dependent variable, the Visionary scores on the LBQ. ANOVAs were used, followed by a Scheffe Post Hoc Test. Two-Way ANOVAs were conducted to examine the relationship between role group, sport classification and LBQ scores.

Hypotheses Four

There will be no significant difference in the Visionary and Transactional leadership scores and the sex of the CEO's or Presidents as measured by the LBQ.

For Hypothesis Four, the independent variable was the sex of the CEO's and Presidents, and the dependent variable, the Visionary and Transactional scores on the LBQ. Two-Way ANOVAs were used, with the two main effects being the differences in the Transactional and Visionary Leadership scores between males and females (sex) and the differences in the Transactional and Visionary scores and role group (CEO/President). The interaction will be between sex and role. Other categorical variables were also considered in hypothesis four.

Interview Methodology

The University of Manitoba Research Limited (1987) has suggested that qualitative (interview) and quantitative (questionnaire) research are complimentary approaches. Walker and Rodoc (1988) concur and purport that the interview is a major tool for gathering information for both research and consultation in the organizational setting. Kerlinger (1973) and Luthans (1985) believe that an investigator should use multiple methods of data gathering to allow greater validation of information through convergence. The University of Manitoba Research Limited (1987) posits that while the quantitative approach is an assessment, it is the qualitative approach which assists to further the understanding of the assessment.

In this study, the qualitative assessment or interviews were not meant to elicit a specific response from the target population, but rather to obtain feedback on: (1) the quantitative results; (2) whether the presence of a visionary leader is desirable at the NSO

level; and (3) whether a visionary leader can exist in the NSO environment.

A total of ten subjects were recruited by telephone for the interview process and informed of the purpose of the interview. Two Presidents, four Directors General, and four Executive Directors were interviewed. Seven were from Olympic sports and three from Non-Olympic sports. Four of the interviewees were classified as category 1, four category 2, and two category 3. None of the interviewees were Category 4 NSOs. Eight of the respondents were male and two were female.

The interviews were conducted "one-on-one", in person, except the interviews with the two Presidents who were interviewed by phone. The interviews were scheduled to be twenty minutes in duration.

A master script for the interviews was developed. The script included a statement of the general purpose of the research, an explanation of the terms, the role of the interviewee and a list of open-ended questions. The respondents were guaranteed anonymity of their responses.

The master script was followed uniformly throughout the interviews and served as the basis for coding the responses. A copy is cited in Appendix E.

The master script was piloted with two respondents.

Walker and Rodoc (1988) have suggested that Record Distortion and Interpretation Distortion are two of the major sources of distortion or error in the qualitative or interview technique. In

order to avoid Record Distortion, or the discrepancies between what was revealed and what was recorded by the interviewer, each interviewee, read and initialled the interviewers notes at the end of the interview. Interpretation Distortion, the discrepancy which occurs when the recorded information is summarized or interpreted, was controlled in a similar fashion. Each interviewee again read and initialled the summary of the interview.

Following this process, the responses were summarized and will be compared with the quantitative responses in Chapter 5.

CHAPTER FOUR

RESULTS

The purpose of this study was to investigate the presence and characteristics of transactional and visionary leadership of NSO Chief Executive Officers and Presidents. This chapter will outline the demographics of the respondents, summarize the results of the quantitative statistical analysis and summarize the responses of the qualitative interviews used to test the stated hypotheses. The results of the main analyses for each hypothesis will be reported first, followed by the sub-hypotheses. A summary of the interviews will complete this chapter.

Description of the Subjects

The characteristics of the subjects are presented in Tables 4-11. Eighty-one respondents, including forty-five Chief Executive Officers (CEOs) and thirty-six volunteer Presidents comprised the sample. The CEOs represented 53.1 percent of the sample, and the Presidents, 46.9 percent. These figures represent an eight-six percent response rate for the CEOs, and a sixty-nine percent response rate for the Presidents.

Sixteen percent of the respondents were female; and eighty-four percent male. Twenty-four percent of the CEO sample were female compared to 5.6 percent of the President sample. Seventy-six percent of the CEOs were male and 94.4 percent of the Presidents were male. (Table 4- Sex Distribution of Subjects)

The average age of the respondents was forty-one, with the mean age of the CEOs thirty-eight, and the Presidents, forty-six.

Table 4: Sex Distribution of Subjects

SEX	TOTAL SAMPLE (81)	CEOS (45)	PRESIDENT (36)
MALE	84% (68)	75.6% (34)	94.4% (34)
FEMALE	16% (13)	24.4% (11)	5.6% (02)

TABLE 5 - AGE DISTRIBUTION OF SUBJECTS

AGE	TOTAL SAMPLE (81)	CEOS (45)	PRESIDENTS (36)
25-30	7.4% (6)	8.9% (04)	5.6% (2)
31-35	19.8% (16)	35.6 (16)	- (0)
36-40	16.0% (13)	24.4% (11)	5.6% (2)
41-45	16.0% (13)	8.9% (4)	25.0 (9)
46-50	13.6% (11)	2.2% (1)	27.8% (10)
51-55	13.6% (11)	6.7% (3)	22.2% (8)
56-60	13.6% (11)	13.3% (6)	13.9% (5)

TABLE 6 - ROLE DISTRIBUTION OF SUBJECTS

ROLE	TOTAL SAMPLE (81)	CEOS (45)	PRESIDENTS (36)
DIRECTOR GENERAL	12.3% (10)	22.2% (10)	-
EXECUTIVE DIRECTOR	43.2% (35)	77.8% (35)	-
PRESIDENT	39.5% (32)	-	88.9% (32)
CHAIRMAN	5.0% (03)	-	11.1% (04)

TABLE 7 - EDUCATIONAL DISTRIBUTION OF SUBJECTS

LEVEL	TOTAL SAMPLE (81)	CEOS (45)	PRESIDENTS (36)
SECONDARY	4.9% (4)	2.2% (1)	8.3% (3)
COMMUNITY COLLEGE	6.2% (5)	6.7% (3)	5.6% (2)
BACHELOR	42.0% (34)	48.9%(22)	27.8% (10)
MASTER	28.4% (23)	28.9%(13)	27.8% (10)
PHD	9.9% (8)	8.9% (4)	11.1% (4)
OTHER*	8.6% (7)	4.4% (2)	13.9% (5)

* Refers to a professional designation

(

Consistent with the findings of Goldfarb (1986), the CEOs were younger than the Presidents with 77.7 percent of the CEOs age forty-five or younger; but only 30.6 percent of the Presidents sample were under forty-five years of age. (Table 5-Age Distribution of Subjects)

Forty-three percent of the respondents were Executive Directors, twelve percent Directors General, forty percent Presidents, and five percent were Chairmen. The Executive Directors comprised 77.8 percent of the CEO sample, and the Directors General, 22.3 percent. The Presidents accounted for 88.9 percent of the volunteer sample and the Chairmen 11.1 percent. (Refer to Table 6-Role Distribution of Subjects)

Both the CEOs and Presidents were highly educated. Eighty-one per cent of the total sample held an undergraduate degree and forty-two percent, a graduate degree. A greater percentage of the Presidents (8.3% compared to 2.2%) had only a Secondary School education, but a greater percentage of the Presidents (11.1% compared to 8.9%) hold a Doctorate. (Refer to Table 7-Educational Distribution of Subjects)

Eighty-one percent of the CEOs worked over forty-six hours per week. As would be expected of volunteers, forty-seven percent of the Presidents worked from zero to ten hours per week and a further forty-two percent worked eleven to twenty hours per week. (Table 8-Hours Worked By Subjects)

✓ Eighty percent of the CEOs had been employed as a professional sport administrator for six or more years. This question, did not however, specify whether this experience occurred at their current job. Seventy-seven percent of the Presidents have been involved with their respective NSO as a volunteer for eight years or more. None of the CEO respondents had been employed for less than a year. This would appear to indicate that a CEO must obtain preparatory experience before assuming this position. (Table 9-Experience By Subjects)

Sixty-five percent of the respondents represented Olympic sports. Sixty-seven percent of the CEOs were from Olympic sports compared with sixty-four percent of the Presidents. (Table 10-Olympic Sport By Subjects)

Forty-two percent of the respondents represented those sports classified as category 2, thirty-one percent category 1, seventeen percent category 3 and ten percent category 4. A larger proportion of the respondents in category 4 and 2 were CEO's and a larger proportion of the respondents in category 3 and 1 were Presidents. (Table 11-Sport Classification By Subject)

In summary, a review of the demographics of the respondents indicates that the NSO Presidents are generally male (ninety-four percent), forty-one to fifty-five years of age, and are highly educated (over eighty-six percent had an undergraduate degree and thirty-nine percent hold a graduate degree). The Presidents worked an average of 9.4 hours per week.

TABLE 8 - HOURS WORKED BY SUBJECTS

HOURS	TOTAL SAMPLE (81)	CEOS (45)	PRESIDENTS (36)
0-5	2.5% (2)	-	5.6 (2)
6-10	18.5% (15)	-	41.7% (15)
11-15	11.1% (9)	-	25.0% (9)
16-20	7.4% (6)	-	16.7% (6)
21-25	4.9% (4)	2.2% (1)	8.3% (3)
26-30	1.2% (1)	-	2.8% (1)
41-45	11.1% (16)	20.0% (9)	-
46-50	19.8% (18)	35.6% (16)	-
> 50	23.5% (19)	42.2% (19)	-

TABLE 9 - EXPERIENCE BY SUBJECTS

YEARS	CEOS (45)	PRESIDENTS (36)
< 1	-	2.8% (1)
1-3	6.6% (2)	2.8% (1)
4-5	13.3% (6)	16.7% (6)
6-8	24.4% (11)	13.9% (5)
>8	55.6% (26)	63.9% (23)

TABLE 10 - OLYMPIC SPORT BY SUBJECTS

OLYMPIC	TOTAL SAMPLE (81)	CEO'S (45)	PRESIDENTS (36)
YES	65.4% (53)	66.7% (30)	63.9% (23)
NO	34.5% (28)	33.3% (15)	36.1% (13)

The CEOs were generally male (seventy-five percent), twenty-five to forty-five years of age, and are highly educated (over ninety percent hold an undergraduate degree and thirty-eight percent, a graduate degree). The CEOs worked an average of 47.1 hours per week.

Forty-eight percent of the combined sample of CEOs and Presidents believe that the NSOs were run by the professional staff; nine percent by the volunteers, and forty-three percent believe that the NSOs are run equally by the volunteers and professional staff.

As illustrated in Table 12, these findings differ when the sample is divided by role group into CEO and Presidents samples. Fifty-six percent of the CEOs responded that the NSO was run by the professional staff, four percent by volunteers, and forty percent of the CEOs believed that the professional staff and the volunteers equally ran the NSOs. Thirty-nine percent of the Presidents believed that the professional staff run the NSO, fourteen percent by volunteers, and forty-eight percent of the Presidents responded that the NSO was run equally by the volunteers and the professional staff.

A Chi-Square was performed to examine the responses to how the "Sport is Run" by Role Group, Olympic Sport Classification (categories 3 and 4 combined), and Sport Classification. No differences were found at the $p < .05$ level. Hence the observed differences in the above means regarding how the sport is run were not deemed to be significant.

TABLE 11 - SPORT CLASSIFICATION BY SUBJECTS

CLASSIFICATION	TOTAL SAMPLE (81)	CEOS (45)	PRESIDENTS (36)
1	30.8% (25)	28.9% (13)	33.3% (12)
2	42.0% (34)	46.7% (20)	38.9% (14)
3	17.3% (14)	13.3% (6)	22.2% (8)
4	9.9% (8)	13.3% (6)	5.6% (2)

Category 1 is the highest and Category 4 is the lowest.

TABLE 12 - HOW SPORT IS RUN

BY	TOTAL SUBJECTS (81)	CEOs (45)	PRESIDENTS (36)
PROFESSIONAL STAFF	48.1%	55.6% (25)	38.9% (14)
VOLUNTEERS	8.6%	4.4% (2)	13.9% (5)
EQUALLY	43.2%	40.0% (18)	27.2% (17)

In summary, the demographic results concur with the findings of Beamish (1978), Gruneau and Hollands (1978), Goldfarb (1986) and Macdonald (1988).

The hypotheses in this study were delineated to determine whether role group, job classification, sport classification or other categorical variables would affect the respondents scores on the Leadership Behaviour Questionnaire (LBQ). It was predicted that each of these variables would result in a significant difference in scores.

The mean scores and standard deviations for each of the dependent variables are summarized in Table 13. Statistics are reported for the combined President and CEO sample, President sample, and CEO sample.

A general evaluation of how the combined sample, President sample and CEO sample responded on the Transactional and Visionary Keys are cited in Table 14.

The evaluations, based on the norms developed by Sashkin (1988), indicated that very few of the respondents scored in the "very low" or "excellent" categories. Twenty percent of the CEOs scored in the "very low" category on the Visionary 88B-Culture Key, compared with eight percent of the Presidents. The largest percentage of "excellent" responses were found on the Visionary 88A-Character Key, with 17.3 percent of the combined sample responding in this category.

In general, Table 14 illustrates that 59.3 percent of the combined sample are exhibiting "average" visionary leadership

TABLE 13 - MEAN SCORES AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS
FOR THE DEPENDENT VARIABLES

DEPENDENT VARIABLES	ROLE GROUP			JOB CLASSIFICATION			SPORT CLASSIFICATION			
	COMBINED	CEO	PRES	DIR GEN	EXEC DIR	1	2	3	4	
TRANSACTIONAL	75.16	75.31	74.97	-	-	73.50	76.34	75.00	75.25	
	(6.41)	(6.23)	(6.70)	-	-	(7.27)	(5.71)	(7.34)	(4.46)	
CHARACTER (VIS 88A)	61.98	62.02	61.92	60.89	66.00	62.25	62.34	62.07	59.38	
	(5.59)	(5.52)	(5.75)	(5.31)	(4.45)	(5.64)	(5.20)	(6.59)	(5.63)	
CULTURE (VIS 88B)	35.63	34.33	37.25	33.88	35.90	35.88	36.71	37.86	26.25	
	(6.12)	(6.34)	(5.50)	(6.25)	(6.72)	(5.19)	(5.66)	(5.76)	(2.380)	
BEHAVIOUR (VIS 88C)	99.14	98.20	100.30	97.66	100.10	98.00	99.66	101.50	96.25	
	(6.36)	(7.06)	(5.24)	(6.75)	(8.13)	(6.78)	(6.30)	(6.68)	(3.20)	
TOTAL (VIS 88D)	196.8 (13.36)	194.6 (13.67)	199.5 (12.60)	192.8 (12.79)	202.0 (14.74)	196.1 (14.68)	198.7 (12.27)	201.4 (11.79)	181.9 (5.00)	

TABLE 14 - EVALUATION OF VISIONARY
AND TRANSACTIONAL LEADERSHIP KEYS

DEPENDENT VARIABLE	COMBINED (81)	ROLE GROUP CEOs (45)	PRESIDENTS (36)
<u>TRANSACTIONAL</u>			
AVERAGE	48.1% (39)	44.4% (20)	52.8% (19)
HIGH	50.6% (41)	55.6% (25)	44.4% (16)
EXCELLENT	1.2% (1)	-	2.8% (1)
\bar{X}		3.56	3.50
<u>TASK KEY</u>			
AVERAGE	64.2% (52)	55.6% (25)	75.0% (27)
HIGH	35.8% (29)	44.4% (20)	25.0% (9)
\bar{X}		3.44	3.25
<u>RELATION KEY</u>			
AVERAGE	24.7% (20)	22.2% (10)	27.8 (10)
HIGH	60.5% (49)	66.7% (30)	52.8 (19)
EXCELLENT	14.8% (12)	11.1% (5)	19.4% (7)
\bar{X}		3.89	3.92
<u>VISIONARY-CHARACTER KEY (88A)</u>			
LOW	3.7% (3)	6.7% (3)	-
AVERAGE	24.7% (20)	17.8% (8)	33.3% (12)
HIGH	54.3% (44)	57.8% (26)	50.0% (18)
EXCELLENT	17.3% (14)	17.8% (8)	16.7% (6)
\bar{X}		3.87	3.83
<u>VISIONARY-CULTURE KEY (88B)</u>			
VERY LOW	14.8% (12)	20.0% (9)	8.3% (3)
LOW	39.5% (32)	44.4% (20)	33.3% (12)
AVERAGE	34.6% (28)	26.7% (12)	44.4% (16)
HIGH	8.6% (7)	6.7% (3)	11.1% (4)
EXCELLENT	2.5% (2)	2.2% (1)	2.8% (1)
\bar{X}		2.27	2.67
<u>VISIONARY-CHARACTER KEY (88C)</u>			
LOW	12.3% (10)	17.8% (8)	5.6% (2)
AVERAGE	55.6% (45)	51.1% (23)	61.1% (22)
HIGH	30.9% (25)	28.9% (13)	33.3% (12)
EXCELLENT	1.2% (1)	2.2% (1)	-
\bar{X}		3.16	3.28
<u>VISIONARY-TOTAL KEY (88D)</u>			
LOW	4.9% (4)	6.7% (3)	2.8% (1)
AVERAGE	59.3% (48)	62.2% (28)	55.6% (20)
HIGH	33.3% (27)	28.9% (13)	38.9% (14)
EXCELLENT	2.5% (2)	2.2% (1)	2.8% (1)
\bar{X}		3.27	3.41

scores, 33.3 percent, "high" visionary leadership scores, and 2.5 percent are exhibiting "excellent" visionary leadership scores as measured by the Visionary 88D-Total Key.

When compared with the norms for Indices 1-5, produced by Sanchez (1988) using the LBQ (1985 edition), for a national volunteer organization with local chapters and paid staff, the norms of this study were within SD (Standard Deviation) = .70, and four of the five indices were within SD = .48. In a normal distribution, 98 percent of the responses should fall within two standard deviations of the mean under the curve. The sample for this study fulfills that criteria. The norms for this study are cited in Appendix E.

Hypothesis One

There will be no significant difference in the Transactional and Visionary Leadership scores of the NSO Presidents and CEOs (role) as measured by the LBQ.

In the first hypothesis, the IV was the role group, CEO or President, and the DV, the indice and key scores on the LBQ (1985 and 1988).

An examination of the means cited in Table 14-Evaluation of Visionary and Transactional Leadership Keys, illustrated that the President and CEO groups were generally responding in a similar fashion on the LBQ Key Scores. The Presidents scored higher on the Visionary 88B-Culture Key and Visionary 88D-Total Key, and the CEOs scored higher on the Task Key.

TABLE 15 - MEAN SCORES AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS
OF HYPOTHESIS ONE: TESTS FOR BETWEEN GROUP DIFFERENCES

DEPENDENT VARIABLES	CHIEF EXECUTIVE OFFICER	ROLE PRESIDENT	E
<u>TRANSACTIONAL</u>	75.3111	74.9722	.06
TOTAL KEY	(6.2261)	(6.7039)	
SUPPORTIVE MAN	19.5111	20.1389	1.38
(INDICE 7)	(2.2322)	(2.5763)	
GOAL MANAGEMENT	18.3111	17.8611	.85
(INDICE 8)	(2.0979)	(2.2947)	
TASK MANAGEMENT	17.5111	16.7500	2.46
(INDICE 9)	(2.1386)	(2.2087)	
TEAM MANAGEMENT	19.9778	20.0864	.16
(INDICE 10)	(2.5180)	(2.9772)	
TASK KEY	35.8222	34.6111	2.69
	(3.3459)	(3.2450)	
RELATION KEY	39.4889	40.3611	.70
	(4.2620)	(5.1389)	
<u>VISIONARY</u>			
FOCUSED LDSHP	18.4000	19.5833	10.66**
(INDICE 1)	(1.6842)	(19.5833)	
COMMUNICATION LD	18.3556	18.9167	1.02
(INDICE 2)	(2.3273)	(2.6659)	
TRUST LEADERSHIP	21.0000	20.7500	.32
(INDICE 3)	(2.1320)	(1.7788)	
RESPECTFUL LDSHP	21.6222	22.0833	.91
(INDICE 4)	(2.4890)	(1.6453)	
RISK LEADERSHIP	18.8222	19.0000	.11
(INDICE 5)	(2.1980)	(2.5746)	
FOLLOWER-CENTERED	18.84444	19.0556	.19
(INDICE 6)	(2.1842)	(2.1771)	
BOTTOM-LINE LDSHP	21.1333	20.8889	.20
(INDICE 11)	(2.1805)	(2.7337)	
EMPOWERED LDSHP	21.2889	21.72222	.89
(INDICE 12)	(1.9728)	(2.1595)	
LONG TERM LDSHP	19.6000	19.3056	.26
(INDICE 13)	(2.7253)	(2.4002)	
ORGANIZATIONAL LD	16.8000	18.2500	3.17+
(INDICE 14)	(3.9057)	(3.2809)	
CULTURAL LDSHP	17.5333	19.0000	5.97
(INDICE 15)	(2.7270)	(2.6295)	
CHARACTER KEY	62.0222	61.9167	.01
(VIS88A)	(5.5165)	(5.7539)	
CULTURE KEY	34.3333	37.2500	4.75*
(VIS88B)	(6.3389)	(5.5000)	
BEHAVIOUR KEY	98.2000	100.3333	2.28
(VIS88C)	(7.0569)	(5.2372)	
VISIONARY TOTAL KEY	194.5556	199.5000	2.80+
(VIS88D)	(13.6757)	(12.6027)	

*** $p < .001$, ** $p < .01$, * $p < .05$, + $p < .1$

Analyses of Variance indicated that significant differences were found between the role group of the respondents on Indice 1 ($F(1, 79) = 10.6598, p < .001$), Indice 14 ($F(1, 79) = 3.1700, p < .07$), Indice 15 ($F(1, 79) = 5.9711, p < .05$), and the Visionary 88B - Culture Key Score ($F(1, 79) = 4.7549, p < .05$). No significant differences were found for the Transactional Indices or Transactional Key Scores and Role Group. A summary of these findings is illustrated in Table 15.

On Indice 1, Focused Leadership, the Presidents scored higher ($\bar{X} = 19.5833, SD = 1.5376$) than the CEOs ($\bar{X} = 18.4000, SD = 1.6842$). The same result was found on Indices 14, Organizational Leadership, and 15, Cultural Leadership. The Presidents scored higher ($\bar{X} = 18.2500, SD = 3.2809$) and ($\bar{X} = 19.0000, SD = 2.6295$) on Indices 14 and 15 respectively compared to the CEO's ($\bar{X} = 16.8000, SD = 3.9057$) and ($\bar{X} = 17.5333, SD = 2.7270$).

The ANOVAs also indicated that the Presidents scored higher ($\bar{X} = 37.2500, SD = 5.5000$) on the Visionary 88B - Culture Key than the CEOs ($\bar{X} = 34.3333, SD = 6.3389$).

A MANOVA was conducted to determine the effect of the Role Group on the Visionary 88C-Behaviour Key (1985 LBQ), Transactional Key, and the Visionary 88D - Total Key. It was found that Role Group had no effect on the combination of these keys using Hotelling's T^2 (Value = .06342, $p < .190$). A Roy-Bargman Stepdown Analysis illustrated that only the Transactional Key ($F(1,1) = 4.18628, p < .05$) was significant.

Thus, as illustrated in Table 15, the Presidents scored higher than the CEOs on Indices 1, 14, and 15, and the Visionary 88B - Culture Key Score, the null hypothesis was partially rejected. Role Group did not affect the Transactional Indices or Key Scores.

Hypothesis One was also a test of Burns (1978) hypothesis that Visionary Leadership and Transactional Leadership are located on opposite ends of the continuum. Table 16, a comparison of the correlations between the Transactional, Task and Relation Keys and the Visionary 88A, 88B, 88C, and 88D Keys illustrated that there was a positive relationship between the Transactional and Visionary Keys. As the scores on the Transactional Keys increased, the scores on the Visionary Keys generally increased. This relationship occurred both when the responses of the Presidents and CEOs were considered as a composite and when they were divided by Role Group.

As correlations between the Transactional Keys and the Visionary Keys were observed (many of which were observed at the .001 significance level) and the evaluation of the responses cited in Table 16-Evaluation of Visionary and Transactional Keys, illustrated that the respondents received "high" and "excellent" scores on both the visionary and transactional keys, Burns (1978) hypothesis was rejected.

Hypothesis Two

There will be no significant difference in the Visionary Leadership scores of the Director Generals and Executive Directors (Job Classification) as measured by the LBQ.

TABLE 16 - CORRELATIONS BETWEEN TRANSACTIONAL,
TASK AND RELATION KEYS AND THE VISIONARY KEYS

	TOTAL SUBJECTS (81)	CEOs (45)	PRESIDENTS (36)
<u>TRANSACTIONAL</u>			
CHARACTER KEY (VIS 88A)	.2848**	.0593	.5369***
CULTURE KEY (VIS 88B)	.1709	.1246	.2629
BEHAVIOUR KEY (VIS 88C)	.5847***	.5960***	.6261***
VISIONARY TOTAL (VIS 88D)	.2761***	.3892**	.6200***
<u>TASK</u>			
CHARACTER KEY (VIS 88A)	.2102*	.1517	.2874*
CULTURE KEY (VIS 88B)	.0475	.1443	.0216
BEHAVIOUR KEY (VIS 88C)	.3499***	.4270**	.3407*
VISIONARY TOTAL	.2764** †	.3848**	.2622*
<u>RELATION</u>			
CHARACTER KEY (VIS 88A)	.2408*	-.0324	.5190***
CULTURE KEY (VIS 88B)	.2008*	.0687	.3293*
CHARACTER KEY (VIS 88C)	.5528***	.5355***	.6016***
VISIONARY TOTAL (VIS 88D)	.4561***	.2951*	.6306***
* P, < .05, ** P, < .01, *** P, < .001			

7

In Hypothesis Two, the IV was the job classification of the CEO (Director General or Executive Director) and the DV the Visionary Indice scores and Keys (1988 and 1985).

ANOVAs indicated that a significant difference occurred between the job classification of the CEO's and Indice 11-Bottom Line Leadership ($F(1, 43) = 4.7039$, $p < .05$), Indice 13-Long Term Leadership ($F(1, 43) = 6.2820$, $p < .05$) and the Visionary 88A - Character ($F(1, 43) = 7.7035$, $p < .01$) and Visionary 88D - Total Key Scores ($F(1, 43) = 4.0762$, $p < .05$). Refer to Table 17.

On Indice 11-Bottom Line Leadership, the Directors General scored higher ($\bar{X} = 22.400$, $SD = 1.7764$) than the Executive Directors ($\bar{X} = 20.7714$, $SD = 2.1705$). The same result was found on Indice 13-Long Term Leadership. The Directors General scored higher ($\bar{X} = 21.400$, $SD = 2.2211$) than the Executive Directors ($\bar{X} = 19.0857$, $SD = 2.6610$).

The Directors General also scored higher ($\bar{X} = 66.000$, $SD = 4.472$) on the Visionary 88A - Character Key than the Executive Directors ($\bar{X} = 60.8857$, $SD = 5.3069$). The same result occurred on the cumulative visionary score, Visionary 88D, with the Directors General scoring higher ($\bar{X} = 202.0000$, $SD = 14.7422$) than the Executive Directors ($\bar{X} = 192.4286$, $SD = 12.7885$).

Thus the null hypothesis was rejected and the alternate hypothesis, that there will be a significant difference in the Visionary Leadership scores of the Directors General and Executive Directors as measured by the LBQ was accepted.

**TABLE 17 - MEAN SCORES AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS
OF HYPOTHESIS TWO: TESTS FOR BETWEEN GROUP DIFFERENCES**

DEPENDENT VARIABLES	JOB CLASSIFICATION		E
	EXECUTIVE DIRECTOR	DIRECTOR GENERAL	
FOCUSED LEADERSHIP (INDICE 1)	18.4000 (1.7012)	18.4000 (1.7127)	.00
COMMUNICATION LDSHP (INDICE 2)	18.2571 (2.2537)	18.7000 (2.6687)	.28
TRUST LEADERSHIP (INDICE 3)	20.7714 (2.1569)	21.8000 (1.9322)	1.85
RESPECTFUL LDSHP (INDICE 4)	21.6571 (2.3382)	21.5000 (3.1002)	.03
RISK LEADERSHIP (INDICE 5)	18.5714 (2.1322)	19.7000 (2.3118)	2.10
FOLLOWER-CENTERED (INDICE 6)	18.8571 (2.1440)	18.8000 (2.4404)	.01
BOTTOM-LINE LDSHP (INDICE 11)	20.7714 (2.1705)	22.4000 (1.7764)	4.70*
EMPOWERED LDSHP (INDICE 12)	21.0286 (1.9924)	22.2000 (1.6865)	2.86+
LONG TERM LDSHP (INDICE 13)	19.0857 (2.6610)	21.4000 (2.2211)	6.28*
ORGANIZATIONAL LD (INDICE 14)	16.5429 (3.8983)	17.7000 (4.0014)	.68
CULTURAL LEADERSHIP (INDICE 15)	17.3429 (2.6340)	18.2000 (3.0840)	.76
CHARACTER KEY (VIS 88A)	60.8857 (5.3069)	66.0000 (4.4472)	7.70**
CULTURE KEY (VIS 88B)	33.8857 (6.2533)	35.9000 (6.7239)	.78
BEHAVIOUR KEY (VIS 88C)	97.6571 (6.7517)	100.1000 (8.1302)	.93
VISIONARY TOTAL KEY (VIS 88D)	192.4286 (12.7885)	202.0000 (14.7422)	4.08*

*** $p < .001$, ** $p < .01$, * $p < .05$, + $p < .1$

Hypothesis Three

There will be no significant difference in the Visionary scores of the CEOs and Presidents and the NSO Sport Recognition System Classification as measured by the LBQ.

In Hypothesis Three, the IV was the NSO Sport Recognition System Classification (1-4), and the DV, the Visionary Leadership Indices and Key Scores on the LBQ (1988 and 1985).

ANOVAs indicated significant differences between Indices 14 - Organizational Leadership ($F(3,77) = 8.4659, p < .0001$), and Index 15 - Cultural Leadership ($F(3,77) = 8.2340, p < .0001$) and the Visionary 88B - Culture ($F(3,77) = 9.6019, p < .0001$) and the Visionary 88D - Total Key Scores ($F(3,77) = 4.7284, p < .005$). (Although the Visionary 88D Key was deemed to be significant at the .005 level, the Bartlett-Box F value, $p = .043$, and as such this statistic must be used with caution.) These results are summarized in Table 18.

On Index 14-Organizational Leadership, the respondents in category 3 scored the highest followed by those in category 2. A Scheffe Post Hoc Procedure indicated that the category 4 respondents answered differently than those in categories 1-3. Category 4 respondents scored the lowest on Index 14. The same result was found for Index 15-Cultural Leadership. The respondents in category 3 scored the highest followed by those in category 2 on this index. A Scheffe Post Hoc Procedure indicated that the respondents from category 4 NSOs scored differently than

**TABLE 18 - MEAN SCORES AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS
OF HYPOTHESIS THREE: TESTS FOR BETWEEN GROUP DIFFERENCES**

DEPENDENT VARIABLES	SPORT CLASSIFICATION				E
	1	2	3	4	
TRANSACTIONAL	73.5000	76.3429	75.0000	75.2500	.94
(TOTAL KEY)	(7.2711)	(5.7135)	(7.3380)	(4.4641)	
SUPPORTIVE	19.2917	20.1143	19.7857	19.8750	.55
(INDICE 7)	(2.8663)	(2.1662)	(2.5474)	(1.5526)	
GOAL MANAGEMT	8.0417	18.1429	18.2857	17.8750	.07
(INDICE 8)	(2.3309)	(2.0743)	(2.3346)	(2.3566)	
TASK MANAGEMT	16.5417	17.2857	17.5000	18.0000	1.19
(INDICE 9)	(2.1260)	(2.2826)	(1.9904)	(2.2039)	
TEAM MANAGEMT	19.6250	20.8000	19.4286	19.5000	1.46
(INDICE 10)	(3.0190)	(2.3862)	(3.1796)	(1.8516)	
TASK KEY	34.5833	35.4286	35.7857	35.8750	.55
	(3.4631)	(3.3632)	(3.2858)	(3.1820)	
RELATION KEY	38.9167	40.9143	39.2143	39.3750	1.04
	(5.5554)	(4.0828)	(5.1617)	(2.6152)	
VISIONARY					
FOCUSED LDSHP	18.7500	19.1429	19.1429	18.1250	.92
(INDICE 1)	(1.7754)	(1.6828)	(1.7033)	(1.7269)	
COMMUNICAITON	18.0833	18.7143	19.6429	17.8750	1.44
(INDICE 2)	(2.5353)	(2.4683)	(2.6197)	(1.8077)	
TRUST LDSHP	21.0000	20.8286	20.9286	20.7500	.05
(INDICE 3)	(1.9781)	(2.2027)	(1.7744)	(1.4880)	
RESPECTFUL LD	21.2917	21.9143	22.7143	21.5000	1.38
(INDICE 4)	(2.7581)	(1.9610)	(1.5898)	(1.4142)	
RISK LDSHP	18.8750	19.0571	19.0714	18.0000	.46
(INDICE 5)	(2.0497)	(2.7218)	(2.3358)	(1.6036)	
FOLLOWER-CENTR	19.3333	19.0571	18.6429	17.7500	1.20
(INDICE 6)	(2.2198)	(2.0996)	(2.2738)	(2.0529)	
BOTTOM-LINE	21.4167	20.9429	20.9286	20.3750	.41
(INDICE 11)	(2.2826)	(2.2744)	(2.9991)	(2.7223)	
EMPOWERED LD	21.5417	21.3143	22.0714	21.0000	.61
(INDICE 12)	(1.9106)	(2.0831)	(2.2001)	(2.2678)	
LONG TERM LD	19.2917	20.0857	19.0714	18.0000	1.73
(INDICE 13)	(2.5277)	(2.1471)	(3.6472)	(1.6903)	
ORGANIZATIONAL	17.4583	18.0571	18.9286	12.1250	8.47***
(INDICE 14)	(3.4133)	(3.1987)	(3.7920)	(1.5526)	
CULTURAL LD	18.4167	18.6571	18.9286	14.1250	8.23***
(INDICE 15)	(1.9763)	(2.7541)	(2.7586)	(1.5526)	
CHARACTER KEY	62.2500	62.3429	62.0714	59.3750	.64
(VIS 88A)	(5.6357)	(5.2015)	(6.5921)	(5.6300)	
CULTURE KEY	35.8750	36.7143	37.8571	26.2500	9.60***
(VIS 88B)	(5.1946)	(5.6598)	(5.7627)	(2.3755)	
BEHAVIOUR KEY	98.0000	99.6571	101.5000	96.2500	1.56
(VIS 88C)	(6.7823)	(6.2963)	(6.6766)	(3.1960)	
VISIONARY TOTAL	196.1250	198.7143	201.4286	181.8750	4.73**
(VIS 88D)	(14.6771)	(12.2704)	(11.7912)	(4.9982)	

*** $p < .001$, ** $p < .01$, * $p < .05$

The astericks (*) refer to the significant differences between group means (category 4 was significantly different than categories 1-3).

those from categories 1-3. Category 4 respondents scored lower on Indice 15 than those respondents from categories 1-3.

Significant differences also occurred on the Visionary 88B - Culture Key. A Scheffe Post Hoc Procedure indicated that the respondents from category 4 NSOs scored differently than those from categories 1-3. The respondents from category 4 scored the lowest and the respondents from category 3, the highest on this Key.

The employment of Two-Way ANOVAs indicated that when Role Group, Sport Classification and LBQ Scores were considered, the Transactional components - Indice 7-Supportive Management, and the Relation Key Score, and the Visionary components - Indice 6-Follower Centered Leadership, and Indice 12-Empowered Leadership were deemed to be significant.

On Indice 7-Supportive Management ($F(3,3) = 3.270, p < .05$), an interaction occurred between Indice 7, Role Group and Sport Classification. Category 2 and 4 Presidents scored the highest ($\bar{X} = 21.5$) and the Category 1 Presidents the lowest ($\bar{X} = 19.0$) on this Key.

The Relation Key was deemed to be almost significant ($F(3,3) = 2.611, p < .058$), with the Category 2 Presidents scoring the highest ($\bar{X} = 43.36$) and the Category 3 Presidents the lowest ($\bar{X} = 38.00$). Thus an interaction occurred between the Relation Key and the Sport Classification Category and Role Group.

An interaction was produced between Indice 6 - Follower Centered Leadership, the Role Group and the Sport Classification ($F(3,3) = 3.136, p < .05$), with the Category 3 CEOs scoring the highest ($X = 20.00$) and the Presidents in Category 3 the lowest ($\bar{X} = 17.63$). An interaction also occurred between Indice 12 - Empowered Leadership and the Role Group and Sport Classification ($F(3,3) = 2.904, p < .05$). The CEOs in Category 1 scored the highest ($X = 22.33$) and the CEOs in Category 4 the lowest ($\bar{X} = 20.67$).

Thus as the category 4 NSOs scored significantly lower on the Visionary Indices 14-Organizational Leadership and 15-Cultural Leadership and the Visionary 88B-Culture Key, than the respondents in categories 1-3, the null hypothesis was partially rejected. Sport Classification did not significantly affect the scores on the Transactional Keys or indices. However when Sport Classification, Role Group and LBQ scores were considered, significant differences occurred in both the transactional (Indice 7-Supportive Management, Relation Key Score) and visionary (Indice 6-Follower Centered Leadership, Indice 12-Empowered Leadership) areas.

Hypothesis Four

There will be no significant difference in the Visionary and Transactional Leadership scores and the sex of the CEO's and the Presidents as measured by the LBQ.

In Hypothesis Four, the IV was the sex of the CEO's and Presidents, and the DV, the Visionary and Transactional Scores and Keys on the LBQ. Although not directly cited in Hypothesis Four,

the IVs of experience, education, age and olympic sport were also examined.

One-way Analyses of Variance were conducted to examine the relationship between the sex of the respondents and their visionary and transactional leadership scores. Significant differences were found on Indice 14-Organizational Leadership ($F(1, 79) = 5.9113$, $p < .05$), Indice 15-Cultural Leadership ($F(1, 79) = 5.2514$, $p < .05$) and the Visionary 88B-Culture Key Score ($F(1, 79) = 6.3100$, $p < .05$), the latter being the sum of Indices 14 and 15. Refer to Table - 19.

On Indice 14-Organizational Leadership, the males scored higher ($\bar{X} = 17.8676$, $SD = 3.3984$) than the females ($\bar{X} = 15.2308$, $SD = 4.4750$). The same result was found on Indice 15-Cultural Leadership and the Visionary 88B-Cultural Key. The males scored higher ($\bar{X} = 18.4853$, $SD = 2.6059$)($\bar{X} = 36.3529$, $SD = 5.6059$) respectively, than the females ($\bar{X} = 16.6154$, $SD = 3.1501$)($\bar{X} = 31.6462$, $SD = 7.4705$).

When the Variables of role group (CEO/President) and sex were considered with each indice and key, in Two-way ANOVAs, it was determined that only Indice 5-Risk Leadership, ($F(1,1) = .6.097$, $p < .05$) was significantly affected. The male Presidents scored the highest ($\bar{X} = 19.24$), and the female Presidents scored the lowest ($\bar{X} = 15.00$). No other indices or keys were deemed to be significant at the .05 level.

In summary it appears that when the respondents are considered as a composite, the scores on Indices 14-Organizational Leadership,

TABLE 19 MEAN SCORES AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS
OF HYPOTHESIS FOUR: TESTS FOR BETWEEN GROUP DIFFERENCES

DEPENDENT VARIABLES	SEX FEMALE	MALE	E
<u>TRANSACTIONAL</u>	76.5385	74.8971	.71
(TOTAL KEY)	(5.0269)	(6.6336)	
SUPPORTIVE MAN	20.1538	19.720	6.35
(INDICE 7)	(1.5730)	(2.5265)	
GOAL ORIENTED MAN	18.3077	18.0735	.12
(INDICE 8)	(1.8432)	(2.2548)	
TASK CENTERED MAN	17.8462	17.0441	1.47
(INDICE 9)	(2.3397)	(2.1540)	
TEAM MANAGEMENT	20.2308	20.0588	.04
(INDICE 10)	(2.3149)	(2.8013)	
TASK KEY	36.1538	35.1176	1.05
	(2.9957)	(3.3924)	
RELATION KEY	40.3846	39.7794	.18
	(3.3050)	(4.8924)	
<u>VISIONARY</u>			
FOCUSED LEADERSHIP	18.9231	18.9265	.00
(INDICE 1)	(1.4979)	(1.7646)	
COMMUNICATION LD	19.2846	18.4559	1.54
(INDICE 2)	(1.9381)	(2.5593)	
TRUST LEADERSHIP	21.2308	20.8235	.46
(INDICE 3)	(1.4233)	(2.0656)	
RESPECTFUL LDSHP	22.0000	21.7941	.10
(INDICE 4)	(1.5275)	(2.2630)	
RISK LEADERSHIP	18.4615	18.9853	.53
(INDICE 5)	(2.4364)	(2.3531)	
FOLLOWER-CENTERED	18.3077	19.0588	1.31
(INDICE 6)	(2.0569)	(2.1846)	
BOTTOM-LINE LDSHP	20.4615	21.1324	.83
(INDICE 11)	(1.9839)	(2.5032)	
EMPOWERED LDSHP	20.6923	21.6324	2.32
(INDICE 12)	(1.6013)	(2.1083)	
LONG TERM LDHSP	19.2308	19.5147	.13
(INDICE 13)	(2.7127)	(2.5655)	
ORGANIZATIONAL LD	15.2308	17.8676	5.91*
(INDICE 14)	(4.4750)	(3.3912)	
CULTURAL LDSHP	16.6154	18.4853	5.25*
(INDICE 15)	(3.1501)	(2.6059)	
CHARACTER KEY	60.3846	62.2794	1.26
(VIS 88A)	(4.3309)	(5.7740)	
CULTURE KEY	31.8462	36.3529	6.21*
(VIS 88B)	(7.4705)	(5.6059)	
CHARACTER KEY	100.0000	98.9853	.27
(VIS 88C)	(5.3541)	(6.5642)	
TOTAL KEY	192.2308	197.6176	1.79
(VIS 88D)	(9.4177)	(13.8737)	

\$ P < .005, * P < .05), + P < .1

15-Cultural Leadership and the Visionary 88B-Culture Key, are affected by the sex of the respondent, with the males achieving higher scores. However, when the responses were considered in association with sex and role group, only Indice 5-Risk Leadership was deemed to be significant. Thus the null hypothesis was partially rejected.

Categorical Variables

The independent variables of education, experience and age of the respondents and the classification of a sport as olympic or non-olympic were also examined. Correlation analyses were performed to explore the relationship of education and age of the respondents with the LBQ scores. ANOVAs were used to examine the effect of experience and olympic sport classification on the LBQ scores. In each of these analyses, the combined scores of the CEO's and Presidents were examined, followed by the individual analyses of the President sample and CEO sample.

Olympic Sport Classification

When the composite sample of Presidents and CEOs was considered, ANOVAs indicated significant differences on Indice 14 - Organizational Leadership ($F(1, 78) = 12.8899, p < .001$), and the Visionary 88B - Culture Key Score ($F(1, 78) = 9.6215, p < .005$) and Olympic/Non-Olympic Sport Classification. On Indice 14 - Organizational Leadership, the Non-Olympic respondents scored higher ($\bar{X} = 19.3704, SD = 2.8304$) than the Olympic respondents ($\bar{X} = 16.4340, SD = 3.7340$). The same relationship emerged with the

Visionary 88B - Culture Key. The Non-Olympic respondents scored higher ($\bar{X} = 38.4074$, $SD = 4.6098$) than the Olympic respondents ($\bar{X} = 34.1321$, $SD = 6.3520$). Refer to Table 20.

In order to assess the affect of Role Group (Presidents/CEOs), Olympic Classification and the LBQ scores, Two Way ANOVAs were conducted. An interaction emerged between the Role Group, Olympic Classification and Indice 1 - Focused Leadership ($F(1,1) = 3.849$, $p < .050$). The Olympic sport Presidents scored the highest ($\bar{X} = 19.91$) and the Olympic CEOs the lowest ($\bar{X} = 18.20$).

Thus it appears that Olympic Sport Classification has an effect on the Visionary Leadership scores on the LBQ. On those indices and keys which were deemed significant, the Non-Olympic respondents scored higher than the Olympic respondents. The Transactional Leadership scores were not affected by Olympic Sport Classification.

Education

When the combined responses of the CEOs and Presidents were considered, Indice 2-Communication Leadership, and Indice 5-Risk Leadership, and the Visionary 88C- Behaviour Key, exhibited a strong relationship with the respondents' level of education. As the scores on the above indices increased, the level of education of the respondents decreased. This relationship was particularly strong (.001) on Indice 5-Risk Leadership. Refer to Table 21.

In general, a larger number of correlations with education were evident in the CEO sample. Significant inverse relationships were found for the CEOs for both the Transactional and Visionary

**TABLE 20 - MEAN SCORES AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS
FOR OLYMPIC CLASSIFICATION: TESTS FOR BETWEEN GROUP DIFFERENCES**

DEPENDENT VARIABLES	OLYMPIC	CLASSIFICATION NON-OLYMPIC	E
<u>TRANSACTIONAL</u>	75.8679	74.737	.24
(TOTAL KEY)	(7.0290)	(5.1576)	
SUPPORTIVE MAN	19.8679	19.6667	.12
(INDICE 7)	(2.6964)	(1.7541)	
GOAL MANAGEMENT	18.0943	18.1481	.01
(INDICE 8)	(2.2809)	(2.0700)	
TASK MANAGEMENT	17.2830	17.0370	.22
(INDICE 9)	(2.2047)	(2.1923)	
TEAM MANAGEMENT	20.2075	19.8519	.30
(INDICE 10)	(2.9178)	(2.3649)	
<u>VISIONARY</u>			
FOCUSED LDSHP	18.9434	18.8889	.02
(INDICE 1)	(1.7912)	(1.6251)	
COMMUNICATION LD	18.4528	18.9259	.64
(INDICE 2)	(2.4618)	(2.5858)	
TRUST LDSHP	20.8679	20.8889	.00
(INDICE 3)	(2.1397)	(1.6718)	
RESPECTFUL LD	21.6792	22.0741	.59
(INDICE 4)	(2.1907)	(2.1290)	
RISK LEADERSHIP	19.0377	18.6296	.53,
(INDICE 5)	(2.5341)	(2.0409)	
FOLLOWER-CENTERED	18.8868	19.1111	.19
(INDICE 6)	(2.2673)	(2.0064)	
BOTTOM-LINE LDSHP	21.1132	20.8148	.26
(INDICE 11)	(2.3424)	(2.6608)	
EMPOWERED LDSHP	21.4528	21.6296	.13
(INDICE 12)	(1.9470)	(2.2727)	
LONG TERM LDSHP	19.6604	19.1111	.80
(INDICE 13)	(2.7800)	(2.1721)	
ORGANIZATIONAL LD	16.4340	19.3704	12.89***
(INDICE 14)	(3.7340)	(2.8304)	
CULTURAL LDSHP	17.6981	19.0370	4.3718*
(INDICE 15)	(2.9716)	(2.0844)	
CHARACTER KEY	62.2264	61.5556	.25
(VIS 88A)	(5.5665)	(5.8001)	
CULTURE KEY	34.1321	38.4074	9.62**
(VIS 88B)	(6.3520)	(4.6098)	
BEHAVIOUR KEY	98.9811	99.4074	.08
(VIS 88C)	(6.6202)	(6.0654)	
VISIONARY TOTAL KEY	195.3396	199.3704	1.62
(VIS 88D)	(13.5191)	(14.1036)	

*** $P < .001$, ** $P < .01$, * $P < .05$

TABLE - 21
CORRELATIONS BETWEEN EDUCATION AND LBO SCORES

	COMBINED	CEOs	PRESIDENTS
<u>TRANSACTIONAL</u>	-.1314	-.2793*	-.0071
(TOTAL KEY)			
SUPPORTIVE MAN	-.2169*	-.1771	-.2750
(INDICE 7)			
GOAL ORIENTED MAN	-.0737	-.2059	.0490
(INDICE 8)			
TASK CENTERED MAN	.0622	-.1956	.3187*
(INDICE 9)			
TEAM MANAGEMENT	-.1093	-.1958	-.0522
(INDICE 10)			
TASK KEY	-.0074	-.2541*	-.2516
RELATION KEY	-.1751	-.2085	-.1681
<u>VISIONARY</u>			
FOCUSED LEADERHSIP	-.1943	-.3104*	-.1816
(INDICE 1)			
COMMUNICATION LD	-.2361*	-.3627**	-.1613
(INDICE 2)			
TRUST LEADERSHIP	.0976	.0538	.1646
(INDICE 3)			
RESPECTFUL LDSHP	-.1319	-.2274	-.0510
(INDICE 4)			
RISK LEADERSHIP	-.3334***	-.3973**	-.2954*
(INDICE 5)			
FOLLOWER-CENTERED	-.1711	-.1530	-.2019
(INDICE 6)			
BOTTOM-LINE LDSHP	-.1009	-.0308	-.1445
(INDICE 11)			
EMPOWERED LDSHP	-.1524	-.2830*	-.0671
(INDICE 12)			
LONG TERM LDSHP	-.0207	-.1026	.0716
(INDICE 13)			
ORGANIZATIONAL LD	.0949	.1608	-.0016
(INDICE 14)			
CULTURAL LDSHP	.1044	.0863	.0860
(INDICE 15)			
CHARACTER KEY	-.1095	-.1641	-.0640
(VIS 88A)			
CULTURE KEY	.1044	.1362	.0402
(VIS 89B)			
BEHAVIOUR KEY	-.2824**	-.3814**	-.2407
(VIS 88C)			
TOTAL KEY	-.1325	-.1999	-.1117
(VIS 88D)			

* $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$

indices and keys. Correlations were produced in the CEO sample on the Transactional Key, Task Key, Indice 1-Focused Leadership, Indice 2-Communication Leadership, Indice 5-Risk Leadership, Indice 12-Empowered Leadership, and the Visionary 88C - Behaviour Key. As the scores on these indices and keys increased the level of education of the respondents decreased.

In the President sample, a significant positive relationship occurred on Indice 9-Task Centered Management, and an inverse relationship on Indice 5-Risk Leadership. As the scores on Indice 9-Task Centered Management increased, the level of education of the Presidents increased. As the scores on Indice 5-Risk Leadership, increased the level of the education of the Presidents decreased. The most educated Presidents were the least likely to participate in Risk Leadership.

Thus it appears that education has an effect on both the visionary and transactional keys and indices. This relationship was more pronounced in the CEO sample.

Age

When the independent variable of age was considered, correlations were found on Indice 14-Organizational Leadership, Indice 15-Cultural Leadership, Indice 8-Goal Oriented Management, and the Visionary 88B-Culture Key in the combined CEO and President sample. As the scores on Indices 14, 15 and the Visionary 88B-Culture Key increased, the age of the respondents increased. However, as the scores on the transactional Indice 8 increased, the

age of the respondents decreased.

When the CEO/President samples were considered separately, age appeared to be more closely related with the transactional indices and keys in the CEO respondents, and with the visionary indices and keys in the President sample. Refer to Table 22.

In the CEO sample, Indice 7-Supportive Management, and the Relationship Key, and the summative Transactional Key, were deemed to inversely related with age. As the scores on these indices and keys increased, the ages of the CEO's decreased.

In the President sample, Indice 2-Communication Leadership, Indice 14-Organizational Leadership, Indice 15-Cultural Leadership, and the Visionary 88B-Culture Key exhibited a positive relationship with age. As the scores on these indices increased, the age of the Presidents increased.

Thus it appears that age has an effect on the LBQ indice and key scores. Age was inversely related with the transactional indices in the CEO respondents, and was positively related with the visionary indices and keys in the President sample.

Experience

ANOVAs were conducted to determine whether the years of experience of the CEO's and Presidents significantly affected scores on the LBQ indices and key. No significant differences were found in the President's sample. Indice 4-Respectful Leadership, ($F(1, 44) = 3.0696, p < .052$) was found to be loosely related with the years of experience of the CEOs.

TABLE 22
CORRELATIONS BETWEEN AGE AND LBO SCORES

	TOTAL SUBJECTS	CEOs	PRESIDENTS
<u>TRANSACTIONAL</u>	-.0936	-.2729*	.1782
(TOTAL KEY)			
SUPPORTIVE MAN	-.0066	-.2776*	.2203
(INDICE 7)			
TASK ORIENTED MAN	-.1980*	-.1410	-.2221
(INDICE 8)			
GOAL CENTERED MAN	-.0621	-.1103	.2031
(INDICE 9)			
TEAM MANAGEMENT	-.0055	-.2174	-.2311
(INDICE 10)			
TASK KEY	-.1705	-.1589	-.0188
RELATION KEY	-.0066	-.2739*	.2444
<u>VISIONARY</u>			
FOCUSED LDSHP	.1668	.0214	.0345
(INDICE 1)			
COMMUNICATION LD	.1365	-.0223	.2732*
(INDICE 2)			
TRUST LEADERSHIP	.1588	.2813*	.0569
(INDICE 3)			
RESPECTFUL LDSHP	.0477	-.0064	.0264
(INDICE 4)			
RISK LEADERSHIP	-.0216	.0473	-.1649
(INDICE 5)			
FOLLOWER-CENTERED	.0372	-.0696	.1610
(INDICE 6)			
BOTTOM-LINE LDSHP	-.0847	-.0055	-.1576
(INDICE 11)			
EMPOWERED LDSHP	-.0433	-.1054	-.0879
(INDICE 12)			
LONG TERM LDSHP	-.0679	-.0132	-.1614
(INDICE 13)			
ORGANIZATIONAL LD	.2668**	.1136	.3867**
(INDICE 14)			
CULTURAL LDSHP	.2309**	.0396	.3008*
(INDICE 15)			
CHARACTER KEY	-.0841	-.0333	-.1752
(VIS 88A)			
CULTURE KEY	.2653**	.0870	.3745*
(VIS 88B)			
BEHAVIOUR KEY	.1556	.0952	.0958
(VIS 88C)			
TOTAL KEY	.1605	.0760	.1232
(VIS 88D)			

* $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$

Regression Analyses - Prediction of Key Scores

In order to determine which variables best predicted the Visionary LBQ highest Key scores, a regression analysis was performed. The LBQ Key Scores (VIS 88A, VIS 88B, VIS 88C, VIS 88D) were the Dependent Variables and the other variables (role group, sex, job classification, etc) served as predictor variables. The Regression Analyses were conducted in two stages; first with the composite President and CEO sample and second, divided by Role Group (Presidents and CEOs).

In the combined sample, none of the predictor variables were found to be correlated to the Visionary 88A - Character Key Score or the Visionary 88D -Total Key Score. The variables of Olympic Sport (Yes/No), Age, and Sport Classification (1-4) emerged as the best predictors of scores on the Visionary 88B - Culture Key ($R = .25$, $F(3, 77) = 8.75891$, $p < .001$). The variables of Education and Age emerged as the best predictors of scores on the Visionary 88C - Behaviour Key ($R = .12957$, $F(2, 78) = 5.80563$, $p < .005$) in the combined sample.

In the CEO sample, none of the predictor variables were found to be correlated to the Visionary 88A - Characteristics and Visionary 88D - Total Key Scores. The variables of Sex and Olympic Sport emerged as the best predictors of scores on the Visionary 88B - Culture Key Score ($R = .21846$, $F(2, 40) = 5.59034$, $p < .01$). Education emerged as the only predictor of scores on the Visionary 88C - Behaviour Key Score ($R = .14404$, $F(1, 41) = 6.89949$, $p < .05$).

In the President's sample, none of the predictor variables were found to be correlated with the Visionary 88A -Characteristic Key Score, Visionary 88C - Behaviour Key Score, or Visionary 88D - Total Key Score. The variable of Olympic Sport emerged as the only predictor of scores on the Visionary 88B - Culture Key Score ($R = .28102$, $F(2, 35) = 6.84002$, $p < .005$).

Thus it appears that in the combined, CEO, and President samples, no consistent predictor variables emerged, although the Olympic Sport variable emerged in three of the four equations. Predictor variables were found for the Visionary 88B-Culture Key (Olympic Sport, Age, Sport Classification) and Visionary 88C-Behaviour Key Score (Education, Age) for the combined President and Executive Director sample. Predictor variables were also found for the Visionary 88B-Culture Key (Education) and the Visionary 88C-Behaviour Key (Sex, Olympic Sport) for the CEO sample. In the President sample, predictor variables emerged on the Visionary 88B-Culture Key (Olympic). Although several predictor variables were identified, the strength of their influence was low.

Reliability Analyses

Tests of reliability establish whether the instrument used consistently measures what it is designed to measure. (Ary, Jacobs, & Razavieh, 1985) The statistical procedures used in this study to examine the reliability of the LBQ (1985 and 1988) were: (1) Inter-Index Correlation Coefficients and (2) Reliability Coefficients.

An Inter-Index Correlation Matrix was developed to determine how well the indices held together. As noted in Chapter 3, Hinkle, Wiersma and Jurs (1979) have prepared a guide for interpreting the size of the reliability coefficients. Based on this guideline, there was generally a low positive correlation ($r = .30-.50$) for all pairs of indices and keys. Table 23-Inter-Index Correlations Transactional Keys and Scores, Table 24-Inter-Index Correlations Visionary Keys and Scores, and Table 16-Correlations Between Transactional, Task and Relation Keys and the Visionary Leadership Keys, illustrate the results.

All the key score correlations, with the exception of the Visionary 88B-Culture Key, were reported in the .30-.50 range and were significant at the $p < .05$ level or higher. Many of the correlations were deemed to be significant at the $p < .001$ level.

When the individual indices were compared, generally all the indices, with the exception of the transactional Indice 8 - Goal Oriented Management and the visionary Indice 3 - Trust Leadership, were found to be significant at the $p < .05$ level. The correlations were positive for both the indice and key comparisons. Valley (1986) also found a very low correlation on Indice 3.

A Cronbach's Alpha value of .5821 was reported on the Visionary 88 A-C Keys (Character Key, Culture Key and Behaviour Key). The Character and Culture Keys were the keys added in the 1988 edition of the LBQ.

TABLE 23-INTER-INDEX CORRELATIONS
TRANSACTION KEYS AND INDICES

	IND7	IND 8	IND 9	IND 10	TRANS	TASK	RELATION
IND7	1.000	.009	.205*	.661***	.728***	.140	.899***
IND8	.009	1.000	.163	.124	.453***	.762***	.077
IND9	.205*	.163	1.000	.372***	.632***	.763***	.322**
IND10	.661***	.125	.372***	1.000	.841***	.326**	.923***
TRANS	.728***	.453***	.632***	.841***	1.000	.712***	.864***
TASK	.140	.762***	.763***	.326**	.712***	1.000	.262**
RELATN	.899***	.077	.322**	.923***	.864***	.262**	1.000

* $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$

Key:

IND7 - SUPPORTIVE MANAGEMENT, IND8 - GOAL ORIENTED MANAGEMENT,
IND9 - TASK CENTERED MANAGEMENT, IND 10- TEAM MANAGEMENT,
TRANS - TRANSACTIONAL TOTAL KEY, TASK - TASK KEY SCORE,
RELATN - RELATION KEY SCORE

TABLE 24-INTER-INDEX CORRELATIONS
VISIONARY KEYS AND INDICES

	IND1	IND2	IND3	IND4	IND5	IND6	IND11	IND12	IND13	IND14	IND15
IND1	1.00	.427+	.046	.318**	.159	.207*	.213*	.109	.110	.203*	.164
IND2	.427+	1.00	.241*	.363+	.085	.265	.097	.302**	.158	.348+	.286**
IND3	.046	.240*	1.00	.183	-.086	.054	.201*	.198*	.067	.168	.079
IND4	.318**	.363+	.183	1.00	.169	.452+	.177	.222*	.213*	.216*	.108
IND5	.159	.085	-.086	.169	1.00	.249*	.332+	.275**	.286**	.012	.068
IND6	.207*	.265**	.054	.452+	.248*	1.00	.240*	.211*	.164	.319**	.248*
IND11	.213*	.097	.204*	.178	.332+	.240*	1.00	.476+	.402+	.133	.284**
IND12	.109	.302**	.198*	.222*	.275**	.211*	.476+	1.00	.443+	.102	.186*
IND13	.110	.158	.067	.213*	.286**	.164	.402+	.443+	1.00	.150	.197*
IND14	.203*	.348+	.168	.216*	.012	.319**	.133	.102	.160	1.00	.792+
IND15	.164	.286**	.079	.108	.068	.248*	.284**	.186*	.197*	.792+	1.00

* $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, + $p < .001$

KEY:

IND1 - FOCUSED LEADERSHIP, IND2 - COMMUNICATION LEADERSHIP, IND3 - TRUST LEADERSHIP, IND4 - RESPECTFUL LEADERSHIP, IND5 - RISK LEADERSHIP, IND6 - FOLLOWER-CENTERED LEADERSHIP, IND11 - BOTTOM-LINE LEADERSHIP, IND12 - EMPOWERED LEADERSHIP, IND 13 - LONG TERM LEADERSHIP, IND14 - ORGANIZATIONAL LEADERSHIP, IND15 - CULTURAL LEADERSHIP

The degree of reliability needed in a measure depends to a great degree, on the use of the results. As noted in Chapter 3, Ary, Jacobs and Razavieh (1985) purport that if the results are to be used for making integral decisions about an individual, only instruments with the highest reliability should be used. They state however, that if the results are to be used for decisions about a group (as is the case in this study) or for research purposes, a lower reliability coefficient (.30 - .50) might be acceptable. Based on this premise, the reliability coefficient of .5821 on the 1988 visionary scales (A-C), Character Key, Culture Key, and Character Key, would be acceptable. It should be noted that Items 16, 26, 37, 50) related to the above keys have been slightly (grammatically) amended by the author since the initiation of this study.

Interview Summary

As noted in Chapter 3, the purpose of the qualitative interviews was threefold: (1) to obtain feedback on the quantitative results; (2) to determine whether it was desirable to have a visionary leader as a Chief Executive Officer or President of an NSO; and (3) to determine whether it was possible for a visionary leader to exist in the NSO environment. The latter two questions will be summarized in this chapter. Feedback on the first purpose will be discussed in Chapter 5.

All the respondents believed that it was desirable for an NSO to have a visionary leader. However the respondents were divided as to whether the visionary leader should be the CEO or President.

Two respondents believed that it did not matter whether the CEO or the President was the visionary leader, provided one was present. These respondents believed that the Presidents were more instrumental in the development of the vision, while the CEOs were integral to the translation and implementation of the vision.

Four respondents believed that the President should be the visionary leader. Two of the respondents indicated that in their organizational structure, the visionary could only be the President. The two other respondents were engaged in an organizational structure where the President served for a three year term, rather than the standard one year term and was eligible for re-election. One of the respondents indicated that the President in their organization had served three consecutive, three year terms.

Five respondents indicated that they believed that either the CEO was the visionary leader or was becoming more the visionary leader due to the growth and complexity of the NSOs. The respondents indicated that they felt that the short term of office of the Presidents and the dependency on information flow from the National Offices limited the capacity of the Presidents to serve as visionary leaders.

All but one respondent believed that a visionary leader could exist given the internal NSO environment (ie. organizational structure). This respondent believed that the CEO lacked the time to be a visionary and the President did not have a broad enough grasp of the organization to fulfil this portfolio.

All the respondents believed that a visionary leader could exist given the external NSO environment (ie. Sport Canada). Eight of the respondents indicated that in the current questionable financial situation, visionary leaders were needed more than ever. A vision was deemed to be important in difficult times. Two respondents noted however, that a visionary leader could become frustrated due to the traditional long time frame for change in the NSO environment.

Finally, the respondents were asked to look five years in the future and identify any trends which could affect the presence of visionary leaders in the NSO environment.

Seven respondents noted that fiscal constraints could potentially have far reaching effects. If the NSOs are under limited budgets, in all likelihood funds would not be available to pay the salaries demanded by visionary leaders. It was hypothesized that if this were to occur, the role of the President as a visionary would be increased. Many of the same respondents indicated that barring a large reduction in funding and marketing opportunities, the role of the CEO will be increased. This would be reflected in a slow change toward the corporate organizational model. It was purported that NSOs will become more businesslike and a trend will emerge for stronger "professional" leadership.

All of the respondents believed that it was both desirable and possible for a visionary leader to exist in the NSO environment. The respondents were evenly split as to whether the visionary leader was currently the CEO or President. There appeared to be

agreement that in the future, the role of the CEO as the visionary will in all likelihood increase, barring major fiscal problems, as a larger number of NSOs adopt a corporate model.

Summary

This chapter presented the findings from this study. A response rate of 86 percent from the CEO sample and 69 percent from the President sample was received. A demographic profile of the respondents was presented. This profile was consistent with the findings of earlier studies. Sixty per cent of the respondents exhibited "average" visionary leadership scores, thirty-three percent "high" visionary leadership scores, and three percent were exhibiting "excellent" visionary leadership scores.

The results of the hypotheses were presented. The null of Hypotheses One, Three and Four were partially rejected. The alternate of Hypothesis Three was accepted.

In Hypothesis One, the Presidents scored higher than the CEOs on Indice 1-Focused Leadership, Indice 14-Organizational Leadership, Indice 15-Cultural Leadership and the Visionary 88B-Culture Key. Role group did not affect the Transactional Scores or Keys. Burns (1978) hypothesis was rejected.

In Hypothesis Two, the respondents in category 4 scored significantly lower on Indices 14-Organizational Leadership, Indice 15-Cultural Leadership and the Visionary 88B-Culture Key than the respondents in categories 1-3. Sport Classification did not affect the Transactional Scores or Keys. When role group and sport

classification were considered, significant differences emerged for both the transactional and visionary scores and keys.

In Hypothesis Four, males scored higher on Indices 14-Organizational Leadership, Index 15-Cultural Leadership, and the Visionary 88B-Culture Key than the females. Sex did not affect the Transactional Scores or Keys. When sex and role group were considered, only Index 5-Risk Leadership, was deemed to be significant.

In Hypothesis Three, the Directors General scored higher than the Executive Directors on Indices 11-Bottom-Line Leadership, Index 13-Long Term Leadership, and Visionary 88D-Total Key Score.

Non-olympic respondents scored higher than olympic respondents on Index 14-Organizational Leadership and the Visionary 88B-Culture Key Score. Olympic sport classification did not affect the Transactional Index or Key scores.

Education had an effect on the visionary and transactional keys and indices. This relationship was more pronounced in the CEO sample. Age had an effect on the LBQ indices and key scores. Age was more closely related with the transactional indices in the CEO respondents and with the visionary indices and keys in the President sample. Years of experience had no significant effect.

Although Regression Analysis identified several predictor variables for the Visionary 88B-Culture Key and Visionary 88C-Behaviour Key scores, the strength of their influence was not strong.

The reliability analyses demonstrated that the instrument's reliability coefficient was acceptable for this study and there was generally acceptable correlations among the indices and keys. Cronbach's Alpha was generally acceptable for the new indices, considering the purpose of the study.

The qualitative interviews indicated that the respondents believed that it was desirable and possible to have a visionary leader in the NSO environment. There respondents were evenly split as to whether the visionary should be the CEO or President. It appeared that in the future, the trend would be to an increased role of the professional staff in the area of visionary leadership.

CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The purpose of this study was to examine the variables relevant to the presence and characteristics of transactional and visionary leadership in National Sport Organization Presidents and Chief Executive Officers. Furthermore, the relationship between role group, job classification, sport classification and other categorical variables and the presence of transactional and visionary leadership was reviewed.

This chapter will include a brief summary of the study and review the findings relevant to the literature and qualitative interviews. Conclusions and recommendations for further research, will complete the chapter.

Summary

Bennis (1984) and Tichy and Devanna (1986) have suggested that in the current economic climate, a new type of leadership is required at the senior management level. The new leaders must transform organizations. The leader must have an ability to help the organization develop a vision of what it can be, to mobilize the organization to accept and become committed to achieve the vision and to institutionalize these changes over time.

The Canadian NSOs are undergoing rapid changes. The funding support systems are being altered, the negative press associated with the Dubin Inquiry is being experienced, the organizational structure of many organizations are being revised to the corporate

model, and others are still in the early stages of an organizational life cycle.

Although many studies have examined leadership behaviour, they have utilized the Leadership Behaviour Descriptive Questionnaire and examined only the factors related to transactional leadership. The LBQ examines both the visionary and transactional domains.

Several studies have been completed to date using the LBQ, but none have been conducted in the amateur sport milieu.

Thus, the examination of visionary and transactional leadership of the CEO's and Presidents was deemed to be of practical and theoretical value in determining the presence and characteristics of these forms of leadership.

The Review of Literature provided an in depth commentary on the LBQ, contemporary leadership theory (transactional and visionary leadership), the measurement of leader behaviours, and the NSO environment. Empirical investigations using the LBQ were documented.

The Research Design was presented including the parameters for gleaning both the qualitative and quantitative data.

A demographic profile of the respondents was developed. The data collected was subsequently analyzed using general descriptive statistics, Pearson Correlations, Cross-Tabs, Chi-Squares, ANOVAs, MANOVAs, Scheffe's Post Hoc Analysis, Bargmann's Stepdown Analysis and Regression Analysis. Table 25 presents the decisions for the null and alternate hypotheses.

TABLE 25 - SUMMARY OF HYPOTHESES AND DECISIONS

HYPOTHESES	DECISION
<u>Hypothesis One</u>	
Ho1 - There will be no significant difference in the Transactional and Visionary Leadership scores of the NSO Presidents and CEOs (Role Group) as measured by the LBQ.	Partially Reject
Ha1 - There will be a significant difference in the Transactional and Visionary Leadership scores of the NSO Presidents and CEOs (Role Group) as measured by the LBQ.	Partially Accept
<u>Hypothesis Two</u>	
Ho2 - There will be no significant difference in the Visionary Leadership scores of the Director Generals and Executive Directors (Job Classification) as measured by the LBQ.	Reject
Ha2 - There will be a significant difference in the Visionary Leadership scores of the Director Generals and Executive Directors (Job Classification) as measured by the LBQ.	Accept
<u>Hypothesis Three</u>	
Ho3 - There will be no significant difference in the Visionary Leadership scores of the CEOs and Presidents and the NSO Sport Recognition System Classification (Sport Classification) as measured by the LBQ.	Partially Reject
Ha3 - There will be a significant difference in the Visionary Leadership scores of the CEOs and Presidents and the NSO Sport Recognition System Classification (Sport Classification) as measured by the LBQ.	Partially Accept

TABLE 25 - Continued

HYPOTHESIS	DECISION
<u>Hypothesis Four</u>	
Ho4 - There will be no significant difference in the Visionary and Transactional Leadership scores and the sex of the CEOs and Presidents.	Partially Reject
Ha4 - There will be a significant difference in the Visionary and Transactional Leadership scores and the sex of the CEOs and Presidents.	Partially Accept
<u>Burns (1978) Hypothesis</u>	
HoB - Transactional and visionary leadership scores as measured by the LBQ, will be inversely correlated.	Reject
HaB - Transactional and visionary leadership scores as measured by the LBQ, will be positively correlated.	Accept

Conclusions

Overall, the results of this study indicated that:

- (1) Role Group, Sport Classification, Sex and Olympic Sport Classification affected several LBQ Visionary Leadership Indices and Key scores, but did not significantly affect the Visionary Total Key score;
- (2) Role Group, Sport Classification, Sex and Olympic Sport Classification did not affect the LBQ Transactional Leadership Indices and Key scores;
- (3) Job Classification affected the Visionary Leadership Indices and Key scores;
- (4) Education and age affected several of the LBQ Visionary and Transactional Leadership Indices and Key scores, but did not significantly affect the Transactional and Visionary Total Key scores;
- (5) Years of experience did not affect the Transactional or Visionary Leadership Indices and Key scores;
- (6) Regression Analysis identified several predictor variables for the Visionary Culture and Behaviour Keys; None were found for the Total Visionary Key;
- (7) The reliability coefficients demonstrated that the LBQ's reliability coefficient was acceptable for the purposes of this study. There was generally acceptable correlation among the indices and keys; and
- (8) The qualitative interviews indicated that the respondents believed that it was desirable and possible to have a visionary leader in the NSO environment.

Results Analysis

Hypothesis One examined whether the Presidents and CEOs differed in their visionary and transactional leadership behaviours. From the analysis conducted using One-Way ANOVAs, it was found that the Presidents scored significantly higher on Indices 1-Focused Leadership, Indices 15-Cultural Leadership, and the

Visionary 88B-Culture Key than the CEOs. Furthermore, it was found that Role Group had no effect on the combination of the Visionary 88C-Behaviour Key, Transactional Key and Visionary 88D-Total Key.

Role group did not affect the Transactional Keys or Indice scores. It should be noted however that no significant difference was found on the Visionary 88D-Total Visionary Key.

These results are important for several reasons. First, as Sashkin (1987(a)) and Block (1987) have suggested, visioning must be initiated from the top of the organization down. An examination of the leadership behaviours of the Presidents and CEOs would indicate whether the Presidents and CEOs are responding in the same fashion or whether one is achieving higher visionary leadership scores. In this study, it would appear that the Presidents and CEOs are generally responding in a similar manner, with the Presidents scoring higher on two indices and one key score.

Second, the role and relationship of the President and CEO is integral to the NSO. Goldfarb (1986) believes that the professional staff members, and particularly the CEO plays an important role in the organization as they possess a national perspective in an organization made up primarily of volunteers with regionally based interests. The CEO also provides organizational continuity due to the short term of office of most Presidents.

Third, Goldfarb (1986) and Slack and Hinings (1987) have purported that medium to high conflict is exhibited between the volunteer President and the paid CEO, generally over issues of control. The results of this study indicated that a discrepancy

did occur over who ran the organization, but it was not deemed to be statistically significant.

The respondents in the qualitative interviews offered several explanations for the higher scores in the President sample. As noted in the demographic profile cited in Chapter 4, the Presidents were generally older, and thus it was assumed, more experienced. Indice 1-Focused Leadership, or the ability to focus others attention on the key issues and gaining commitment to these issues, may be a skill that is a function of experience.

The interview respondents also reported that the Presidents were likely to be less critical of themselves and more positive about their impact on the organization than the CEOs, as the Presidents were further removed from the day to day running of the organization. The CEOs were deemed to be more cognizant of the organizational problems and realities.

Two interview respondents believed that in the organizational structure of their association, only the Presidents could begin the questionnaire with the belief that they were a visionary leader.

Burns (1978) hypothesis that visionary and transactional leadership are located on opposite ends of the continuum was also examined. The positive correlations between the transactional and visionary leadership key scores, and the respondents "high" and "excellent" scores on both the transactional and visionary keys, resulted in the rejection of Burns hypothesis. This conclusion supports the findings of Bass (1985) and Sashkin and Fulmer (1987(b)).

Hypothesis Two examined the differences in visionary leadership scores and the job classification of the CEOs. One-Way ANOVAs indicated that the Directors General scored higher than the Executive Directors on Indice 11-Bottom-Line Leadership, Indice 13-Long Term Leadership, the Visionary 88A-Character Key and the Visionary 88D-Total Key.

By definition, the Directors General have greater autonomy. The Executive Directors are generally the Chief Administration Officers of their NSOs and must work within approved policy and budget. Conversely, the Directors General fulfil the roles of both Chief Administration Officer and Chief Executive Officer and have the authority to determine policy and budget. As a result, the Directors General have greater latitude to exhibit the characteristics of visionary leadership.

The establishment of Long Term Leadership as a significant indice supports the work of Jaques (1985). Jaques (1978) Time Span of Discretion Theory suggests that people in organizations differ primarily in the length of time of their longest term responsibilities. Jacques believes that executive leaders have the ability and latitude to vision in time spans of up to ten years. The fact that this indice was deemed to be significant further emphasises its importance. All Olympic sports and most non-olympic sports, must participate in a four year planning process entitled quadrennial planning. Thus long range planning is a required task among national sport organizations.

It was hypothesized by the interview respondents that the Directors General may be hired for their visioning abilities, while the Executive Directors are hired for their ability to complete specific tasks within established policy. While an Executive Director may have the ability to express or create a vision, they may not have the authority to extent or expand the vision throughout the organization. The higher salary range offered for the position of Director General would generally attract individuals with greater experience than an Executive Director posting. Finally, three interview respondents postulated that an Executive Director may not have the time to allocate to visionary activities due to shortages of staff or money.

Hypothesis Three examined the affect of Sport Recognition System Classification and the LBQ scores of the respondents. One-Way ANOVAs indicated significant differences on Indice 14-Organizational Leadership, Indice 15-Cultural Leadership and the Visionary 88B-Cultural Key. A Scheffe Post Hoc Procedure determined that the category 4 sports answered differently and lower than those in categories 1-3. The transactional leadership scores were not affected by sport classification.

No other studies to date have utilized sport classification as a variable and as such there were no direct findings with which to compare the results.

Frisby (1984, 1986) and Challadurai, Szyszlo and Haggerty (1986) have used high performance outputs as measures of NSO effectiveness. The Sport Recognition System Classification

includes both a high performance and domestic component.

The literature associated with the LBQ illustrates that high visionary leadership scores are associated with high measures of organizational effectiveness. Major (1987) found that as the effectiveness of schools increased (as measured by standardized student achievement tests), the visionary leadership scores of the principal increased. This conclusion is supported by the work of Sashkin (1986-(a),(b)). The finding that category 4 sports scored significantly lower than the other categories partially supported this concept. However, category 3 sports scored the highest on all of the significant items.

The interview respondents hypothesized that sport classification would not affect the presence of visionary leadership, except at the lower levels. Several of the respondents did not fully understand the classification system.

The finding that category 4 sports exhibited the lowest visionary leadership scores is not surprising. As government support is tied to sport classification, category 4 sports would receive less money for salary and general operational support. In all probability, category 4 sports would also receive less corporate support due to their lower high performance results and smaller domestic base.

Hypothesis Four examined the relationship between transactional and visionary leadership scores and the sex of the respondents. One-Way ANOVAs indicated that the males scored higher than the females on Indice 14-Organizational Leadership, Indice 15-

Culture Leadership, and the Visionary 88B-Culture Key.

This sample was heavily skewed to the CEO responses as only two female Presidents completed the questionnaire. However, the number of female President respondents is reflective of the total population.

As noted in Chapter 2, the majority of female CEOs are employed by the smaller NSOs. In 1985, female CEOs were employed by 45 percent of the NSOs with budgets under \$500,00, 45 percent of the NSOs with budgets between \$500,000 and \$1,000,000, and by only 6 percent of those NSOs with budgets of over \$1,000,000. (Women in Sport, 1986) As a result, several of the NSOs controlled by the female CEOs were lower category sports. Based upon the same reasons noted in Hypothesis Three, the females scored lower than the males on the significant indices.

Several interviewees noted that sport is founded upon a patriarchal system, and as such, females in the same position as males, were subject to increased scrutiny, and had fewer opportunities for networking. This may, in part explain the result of the Two-Way ANOVAs between role group and sex, in which the males scored higher on Indice 5-Risk Leadership, than the females.

Thus it appears that Sex is partially related to the presence of visionary leadership on several indices. This relationship was not significant for the Visionary 88D-Total Key score. This finding was supported by the interviews.

When the categorical variable of olympic sport was considered, the non-olympic sport respondents scored significantly higher on

Indice 14-Organizational Leadership and the Visionary 88B-Culture Key. The interviewees suggested that the Non-Olympic sports scored higher as an organizational culture may be easier to develop in a smaller association.

When the education of the respondents was considered, Indice 2-Communication Leadership, Indice 5-Risk Leadership, and the Visionary 88C-Behaviour Key exhibited a strong correlation with the respondents' level of education. As the scores on these indices increased, the level of education of the respondents decreased. This relationship was particularly strong (.001) on Indice 5-Risk Leadership.

When the sample was divided between the Presidents and CEOs, a larger number of inverse correlations were evident in the CEO sample. In the Presidents sample, a positive correlation was found on Indice 9-Task Centered Management and an inverse correlation with Indice 5-Risk Leadership.

Indice 5 - Risk Leadership emerged to be inversely related to education in both the samples. Sashkin (188(b)) and Bennis (1984) believe that a positive correlation should exist on this item. Perhaps the educational institutions have traditionally encouraged a more conservative approach to administration and leadership. The transitory NSO environment, where the average term of office for the President of an NSO is short, may encourage CEOs and Presidents to be more conservative in their approach.

When the variable of age was considered, positive correlations were found on Indice 14-Organizational Leadership, Indice 15-

Cultural Leadership, and the Visionary 88B-Culture Key in the combined CEO and President sample. An inverse relationship was found on Indice 8-Goal Oriented Management. Age appeared to be more closely related (inversely) with the transactional indices in the CEO respondents and positively correlated with the visionary indices in the President respondents. Thus it appears that as the age of the CEOs increased, their transactional scores increased. However, as the age of the Presidents increased, their visionary leadership scores increased. This is an area which could benefit from further research.

Experience did not affect the visionary or transactional leadership scores. If this questionnaire item had been reworded to query the length of time the respondent had worked for the NSO, rather than "how long have you been employed as a professional sport administrator?", alternate results might have resulted.

In summary, the transactional leadership scores were not significantly affected by role group, sport classification, sex or olympic sport classification. However, the visionary indices and keys, and in particular Indice 14-Organizational Leadership, Indice 15-Cultural Leadership and the Visionary 88B-Culture Key were affected by these variables.

This finding, supports the work of Sashkin (1988(a)) and Bass (1985). They purport that individuals exhibit both transactional and visionary leadership in different amounts and intensities. This was evidenced by the "good" and "excellent" ratings received by the respondents on both the transactional and visionary

evaluations.

Tichy and Ulrich (1984) agree and have stated that while visionary leaders attend to transactional or operational activities, they are primarily concerned with the matters related to the organizational culture. Schien (1985) further suggests that the construction and maintenance of organizational culture may be the only really important task for organizational leaders. Deal and Kennedy (1982) and Sashkin and Fulmer (1986) concur and purport that executive leaders are directly concerned with creating culture and designing organizational functions that promote organizational effectiveness. Thus the significance found of Organizational and Cultural Leadership and the total of these two indices, the Culture Key, is supported by the literature.

This study was also a test of the revised LBQ and the Visionary Leadership Framework in an amateur sport setting. The reliability coefficient (Cronbach's Alpha) of .58 for the Visionary Keys, while not being high, was deemed to be generally acceptable for the purposes of this study. Adequate inter-index and inter-key reliability was found. The results of this study support the 1988 version of the Visionary Leadership Framework. The inclusion of the organizational culture and personal dimensions of visionary leadership were deemed to be significant.

Limitations of the Study

In addition to those mentioned thus far, several limitations in the design of the present study warrant consideration in the interpretation of the results.

First, due to the same sample size, the author could not complete all the planned statistical tests of significance. In several instances, categories were combined to obtain a sufficient sample size. (These were noted in the body of the text.) The results of the analysis was limited, particularly in the female President grouping.

Second, since the initiation of this study, the LBQ has been further revised. The wording of several indices, including two questions for Indice 12-Empowered Leadership, Indice 13-Long Term Leadership, and Indice 14-Organizational Leadership were altered to better reflect the intent of the question. These changes may have resulted in greater levels of significance, particularly on the Visionary 88A-Characteristics Key and the Visionary 88D-Total Key scores.

Implications for the Study

As a result of this study, in practical terms, information has been developed about the leadership characteristics of National Sport Organization Presidents and Chief Executive Officers.

Information can be gleaned regarding: (1) the extent to which the respondents used visionary leadership behaviour (Visionary Leadership Behaviour Key Score); (2) the degree to which the respondents had the personal characteristics of visionary leaders (Visionary Leadership Character Key Score); (3) the nature of the organizational culture in which the respondents were attempting to exercise leadership (Visionary Leadership Culture Key Score); and (4) the extent the respondents used transactional leadership

behaviours (Transactional Leadership Key Score).

Further information has been presented regarding the affects of role group, job classification, sport classification, olympic sport classification, sex, age and education.

Sashkin and Fulmer (1986), Bennis (1984) and Tichy and Devanna (1986) believe that visionary leadership is a behavioral process and can be learned. As such, there are many possibilities for both "in-service" professional development and university "pre-service" training.

Zeigler (1977) and others have long called for "in-service" professional development training. Following the cessation of the Professional Development Program for Association Managers in 1988, there has been no specific professional development programs offered to the Canadian Sport and Fitness Administration Centre CEOs. In the current environment, training in visionary leadership would be advantageous. The varying degrees of awareness among the NSO CEOs and Presidents regarding the basic tenets of visionary leadership, is evidence of this need.

The finding that several visionary leadership indices and keys decreased with the education of the respondent, coupled with the previous findings of Parks and Quain (1986) and others, has caused the author to question the effectiveness of existing university and preparatory programs in meeting sport administration job related needs.

The Level 4/5 Coaching curriculum developed by the Coaching Association of Canada, includes several modules on coaching

leadership skills, including communication factors, leadership theory, conflict resolution, team building, negotiation and self-evaluation inventories. Although many universities examine leadership and communication theory, it is hypothesized that little emphasis is placed on the above cited factors or the factors associated with the visionary leadership indices; particularly in their practical application. Universities should examine whether they equip, or desire to equip their graduates with the behavioural and cognitive skills necessary for leading organizations.

The results of this study also support Sport Canada's development of the Director General portfolio. The Directors General exhibited significantly higher scores on the visionary indices than the Executive Directors. Further research must be conducted to determine whether the movement toward a corporate structure or model in the NSOs will result in an increase in visionary leadership.

The LBQ could also be used in the performance appraisal process. The LBQ, or specific portions of the LBQ "self" or "other" forms could be used to provide feedback and identify areas of improvement or areas of strength.

NSOs and Sport Canada must carefully examine the required qualifications and requisites of candidates in the employee selection process. Abby Hoffman, Director General of Sport Canada, has indicated that the nature of sport leadership will change and transformational leaders with vision, change management skills, and knowledge of planning and evaluation will emerge. The NSOs and

Sport Canada must decide whether visionary characteristics and behaviours are a lesser, equal, or greater priority than the transaction or "hard" issues. Employee and volunteer selection should reflect his decision.

Recommendations for Future Research

The fact that so few CEOs and Presidents scored in the "excellent" range in visionary leadership, raises several questions regarding the validity of the LBQ instrument and the meta-physical construct of visionary leadership. Are the NSO CEOs and Presidents only "average" visionary leaders? Is there a better method to measure visionary leadership?

Although this question is outside the parameters of this study, it is suggested that the primary focus of future research should utilize a case study approach to examine the construct of visionary leadership. The case study approach could include the same population used in this study, allowing quantitative and qualitative comparisons to be made.

The following are additional suggestions for further research.

1. The population sample could be expanded to encompass all the organizations, including the fitness and multi-sport resident organizations at the Canadian Sport and Fitness Administration Centre. Parallels could also be investigated with the Provincial Sport Administrators and Presidents.
2. The 1988 version of the LBQ should be further reviewed to determine if the Culture Key and Indices of the LBQ yield results comparable with the 50 question Organizational Culture Questionnaire. (Sashkin, 1987(d)) As the area of culture resulted in the largest number of significant differences, further research should be conducted in this area.

3. The CEO-President matching should be further examined. Each NSO CEO could complete the LBQ "self", and the LBQ "other" for the NSO's President. Each NSO President would also complete the LBQ "self", and the LBQ "other" for the NSO's CEO. The "self" and "other" scores would then be compared.
4. Further research should be conducted to determine whether the CEO or the President is, or should be, the visionary leader in the NSO. This research could examine whether the organizational structure and life cycle is a contributing factor. The study could also examine whether the visionary leadership "disposition" of the President and the CEO were comparable or opposed at the time of hiring of the CEO.
5. Further research should be conducted to determine whether professional development would increase the visionary leadership scores of the respondents, as was hypothesized by Sashkin.
6. Further research could be conducted to delineate a series of variables which could predict visionary leadership in the NSO environment.
7. Finally, research could be conducted to further investigate the affect of sex and visionary leadership.

The 1988 Task Force Report has identified the NSOs as the key agencies in the Canadian Sport System. A basic tenet of this position was the need to strengthen the NSOs and their personnel to the point where they have the capacity to provide the needed leadership. An examination of the visionary leadership framework could provide the template for such a reality.

LIST OF APPENDICES

<u>ITEM</u>	<u>TITLE</u>
A	SPORT CANADA SPORT RECOGNITION CLASSIFICATION SYSTEM
B	LETTERS OF PERMISSION
C	INSTRUMENTATION AND LETTERS OF REMINDER
D	LBQ EVALUATION KEY (1985 AND 1988 EDITIONS)
E	INTERVIEW QUESTIONNAIRE
F	INSTRUMENT NORMS

APPENDIX A

•• FINAL DRAFT ••

SPORT RECOGNITION SYSTEM

A SPORT CANADA POLICY

SUMMARY STATEMENT

The purpose of this policy is two-fold: (1) To set out the criteria which National Sport Organizations must meet in order to be recognized by the federal government as client organizations eligible for access to federal government sport services and funding; and, (2) To set out the criteria which are used in the assessment of submissions from national sport organizations for federal government funding. This latter set of criteria spells out the general priorities which are applied to Olympic and Non-Olympic Sports with respect to programs and services in Sport Canada's three program component areas: Sport Infrastructure, Domestic Sport Development and High Performance Sport. As well, the policy identifies the importance the federal government currently places on both 'participation' and 'high performance achievement' in the determination of federal support.

This policy provides guidance to organizations not presently recognized by the federal government but seeking such recognition; and, to organizations which are recognized currently and should, therefore, be aware of criteria which must be met in order for status as a recognized national sport organization to be retained. As well, this policy provides the basic rationale for federal sport support to national sport organizations vis a vis current federal sport priorities and within categories based on objectively defined performance standards.

Sport Canada
October 1985

SPORT CANADA
SPORT RECOGNITION SYSTEM

I. INTRODUCTION :

I.1. GENERAL RECOGNITION - 'SPORT' / 'NATIONAL SPORT ORGANIZATION'

The federal government 'recognizes' sports and National Sport Organizations which meet specific criteria. Before any consideration for support is extended to an applicant organization, the activity governed by the organization must meet the definition of 'sport'; and, the organization, with respect to such factors as its legal and financial status, and the nature and size of its activities within Canada, must meet certain universally applied criteria prior to recognition as a federal government 'client' organization for sport support purposes.

The definition of 'sport' currently used by Sport Canada is outlined in Appendix A. The criteria used to determine whether a National Sport Organization is eligible for recognition as a 'client' of Sport Canada is outlined in Appendix B.

I.2. FUNDING and SUPPORT FOR NATIONAL SPORT ORGANIZATIONS

Sport Canada has been working for some time to develop criteria which would more clearly indicate the bases upon which funding decisions are made. While the complexities of sport generally and the unique requirements of each sport make the establishment of funding formulae virtually impossible, information which sets out general priorities considered in the course of federal funding decisions should be disclosed.

In addition to the detailed considerations (outlined in various Sport Canada Program Guides) which govern funding decisions in each of Sport Canada's program components (Sport Infrastructure, Domestic Sport Development and High Performance Sport), two specific priorities warrant particular attention:

1. PARTICIPATION -

Inasmuch as National Sport Organizations have an obligation to develop programs (delivered directly, or through provincial affiliates), which ensure large numbers of Canadians take part in competitive sport programs of high technical quality, the numbers of individuals involved in competitive sport who receive services directly or indirectly from the NSO is a consideration in determining funding - particularly in the areas of sport infrastructure and domestic sport development.

The number of competitors known to be receiving service directly or indirectly from the National Sport Organization will be considered during the course of arriving at funding decisions. However, no formal categorization of sports/NSOs according to numbers of registered participants or NSO members has been established at this time.

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11. HIGH PERFORMANCE ACHIEVEMENT -

In view of the federal government's very clear mandate for high performance sport, a significant proportion of federal funding for sport is directed to programs which have as their objective improvement in the standing of Canadian athletes in international sport - particularly in sports on the programs of the Summer and Winter Olympic Games.

Although funding decisions are not made strictly on the basis of the international performance achievements of the sport, world rankings (and performance at the Olympic Games in the case of Olympic sports) do provide general guidance during the process of allocating funds for high performance programs and related NSO requirements in the areas of domestic sport development and sport infrastructure.

A detailed description of categories of Sport Canada support for National Sport Organizations in Sport Canada's three program component areas: Sport Infrastructure, Domestic Sport Development and High Performance Sport is found in Appendix C to this Sport Recognition Policy and in the specific program Guides published by Sport Canada. Appendix C indicates funding considerations for Olympic and non-Olympic Sports.

NOTE : For the purpose of this policy, NSOs responsible for sport for the disabled are regarded as 'Non-Olympic' Sports/NSOs. A statement of federal sport priorities is found in the document entitled: "Sport for the Disabled - a Federal Government Policy" published in 1985.

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II. HIGH PERFORMANCE RECOGNITION SYSTEM

The following pages outline the criteria for High Performance Recognition for each of: Olympic Summer Sports, Olympic Winter Sports and Non-Olympic Sports.

This four-level High Performance Recognition System has been developed to provide general guidance to the federal government in the determination of funding levels for high performance activities and programs of both Olympic and Non-Olympic Sports.

Generally, each sport will be categorized on the basis of world rankings and/or Olympic results at the beginning of each Quadrennial period for the duration of the Quadrennial. However, adjustments may be made at the mid-Quadrennial point based on results of World Championships or other major competitions. It should be noted that these rankings are not used in a rote formula fashion to determine high performance funding. Rather, such factors as the technical complexity of the sport, international standards and norms for athlete preparation, the number of events and entries permitted within the Olympic or World Championships Program of the sport, the size of National Team Training Squad required, the extent of high performance development of the sport within Canada, and the requirements for team equipment are considered along with the ranking of the sport.

A general objective of Sport Canada's high performance programs is to ensure the maintenance of Category I ranking of sports already in that group, and to assist Category II and III sports to advance at least by one category over the period of 1-2 Quadrennials. Category IV sports will generally not be funded for significant national team programs or world championship participation. Funding will be allocated so as to optimize prospects of attaining these general performance objectives.

In the case of non-Olympic sports which do not meet the minimum criteria for ranking in any of the 4 categories - individual determination of funding levels for high performance will be undertaken. This refers specifically to sports which do not meet the criteria for minimum number of countries participating in World Championship level competition.

In addition, support may be provided to specific individuals who excel in World Championship competitions, but whose sport does not meet the performance standards of Categories I, II or III.

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HIGH PERFORMANCE RECOGNITION SYSTEM OLYMPIC SUMMER SPORTS

CATEGORY I CATEGORY II CATEGORY III CATEGORY IV

< ----- Individual Sports ----- >

2+ Medals within Top 8 finishes in at least 33 % of the events. (6+ events)	2+ Medals within Top 8 finishes in < 33 % of the events. (6+ events)	1 medal. (6+ events)	Sports not in Category I, II, III.
	1 Medal within Top 8 finishes in > 33 % of the events. (6+ events)	Top 8 finishes in at least 25 % of the events. (6+ events)	
	Top 8 finishes in at least 50 % of the events. (6+ events)		
1+ Medal within at least 3 - Top 8 finishes. (4-5 events)	Top 8 finishes in at least 3 events. (4-5 events)	Top 8 finishes in at least 2 events. (4-5 events)	
1+ Medal within at least 2 - Top 8 finishes. (2-3 events)		Top 8 finishes in at least 2 events. (2-3 events)	
1 Medal. (1 event)		1 Top 8 finish. (1 event)	
		Demonstrated potential to reach Category III standards by 1988.	

(% of events = % of events contested on the Olympic Program)

< ----- Team Sports ----- >

1st-6th place finish in 1984.	7th-12th place in 1984 AND definite prospect for Olympic Qualific'n in 1988.	7th-12th place in 1984 AND high probability of Qualific'n in 1988.	Sports not in Category I, II, III.
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OLYMPIC SUMMER SPORTS (cont'd)

NOTES : Rankings for the 1984-88 period will be based primarily on 1984 Olympic results.

Sports on the official program of the 1988 and 1992 Summer Olympic Games are considered to be 'Olympic' sports for the purpose of this High Performance Recognition System. Sports which were not on the 1984 Olympic Program, but which are confirmed for 1988 or 1992, will be categorized according to recent World Championship results. Some adjustments may be made to 1984 Olympic results in view of the boycott in some sports by significant numbers of competitors from key nations.

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OLYMPIC WINTER SPORTS

For the 1984-88 Quadrennial, all Winter Olympic Sports are being considered as high priorities for high performance support, given Canada's status as 'host nation' and the availability of 'Best Ever - Winter ' Program funding. Where funding allocation judgements must be exercised due to available spending ceilings, priorities based on categories and criteria similar to those enumerated above for Summer Olympic Sports are used.

HIGH PERFORMANCE RECOGNITION SYSTEM NON-OLYMPIC SPORTS

CATEGORY I	CATEGORY II	CATEGORY III	CATEGORY IV
< ----- Individual Sports ----- >			
Top 5 placings in at least 50 % of the events on the World Champ- ionship Program. (> 20 countries)	Top 10 placings in at least 50 % of the events on the World Champion- ship Program. (> 20 countries)	Top 15 placings in at least 50 % of the events on the World Championship Program. (> 20 countries)	Top 20 plac- ings in at least 50 % of the events on the World Championship Program. (> 20 cos.)
Top 3 placings in at least 50 % of the events on the World Championship Program. (10 - 19 cos.)	Top 5 placings in at least 50 % of the events on the World Championship Program. (10 - 19 countries)		
< ----- Team Sports ----- >			
Top 5 finish in most recent World Champ- ionships. (> 20 countries)	6th-10th place finish in most recent World Championships. (> 20 countries)	11th-15th place finish in most recent World Champ- ionships. (> 20 countries)	16th-20th place finish in most recent World Championships. (> 20 cos.)
Top 3 finish in most recent World Champ- ionships. (10 - 15 countries)	4th-5th place finish in most recent World Championships. (10 - 19 countries)	6th-10th place finish in most recent World Championships. (10 - 19 countries)	
1st place finish in most recent World Championships. (5 - 9 countries)	2nd place finish in most recent World Championships. (5 - 9 countries)	3rd place finish in most recent World Championships. (5 - 9 countries)	

... 7

NOTES : Individual athletes who place in the Top 3 in World Championship events (in which at least 20 countries participate) but whose sport does not qualify in any of the above categories may be considered for individual high performance support.

Individual athletes who win World Championship events in sports which do not qualify in any of the above categories, (and, in which fewer than 20 countries participate) may be considered for individual high performance support.

Teams which do not qualify under any of the categories listed above but which have demonstrated significant international competitive success may be considered for high performance support on an 'exceptional' basis.



**National
Sport and Recreation
Centre**

**Centre national
du sport
et de la récréation**

333 CH. RIVER RD.
VANIER, ONTARIO K1L 8H9
(613) 746-0060 TELEX 053 3660

July 22, 1988.

Ms. Sharon Squire,
Technical Director,
Can. Squash Racquets,
333 River Rd., C-8,
Vanier, Ontario
K1L 8H9.

Dear Sharon,

I acknowledge receipt of your letter of July 15th and wish to advise you that permission is given for you to proceed with your study. I am only too happy to assist in this manner but would advise that we do not have control over all associations. I wish you every success in this project.

Yours very truly,

HG|eal

Hugh Glynn, C.A.E.
President.



UNITED STATES DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION

OFFICE OF THE ASSISTANT SECRETARY
FOR EDUCATIONAL RESEARCH AND IMPROVEMENT

March 27, 1987

Sharon Squire, Technical Director
Canadian Squash Racquets Association
333 River Road
Ottawa, Ontario K1L 8H9
CANADA

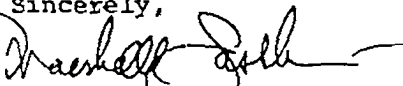
Dear Ms. Squire:

Thanks for your letter of March 11, asking for more information about my work on leadership in organizations. I enclose several recent papers, including two on creating excellence cultures in organizations. A copy is being sent to you, from the publisher, of the Leader Behavior Questionnaire and Trainers Guide. An earlier and more extensive version of the paper you mentioned you had read is also enclosed. It reports scale reliabilities for an earlier version of the LBQ; this resulted in revisions designed to further increase reliability. Also reported in this paper is an hypothesis test, demonstrating that when leaders engage in the five behaviors measured by the LBQ they are seen by their subordinates as more charismatic.

There are currently four dissertations underway, one completed, and one in the planning stages, all investigating leadership and using the LBQ. I enclose a list with the names and addresses of the persons involved; you might want to contact some of them. If you wish to use the LBQ in your own thesis work, you have my permission to either retype the questions or to copy them from the LBQ questionnaire. In either case you would have to use a scoring/answer form, since the form in the questionnaire booklet uses carbonless print-through paper and cannot simply be copied. Please note that the LBQ is copyright; it is widely used in management and leadership training and is gaining in popularity. In exchange for permission to use the LBQ instrument, I ask that you provide me with a set of the raw data you obtain and with a copy of your dissertation when it is finished. I would also be glad to advise you with regard to any questions you might have on the LBQ or its use in your masters thesis.

Please feel free to call on me if I might be of help, or with any questions about the LBQ or the enclosed materials. You can reach me at (202) 357-6116 or (301) 552-9523 (home). I wish you well in your thesis work and will be happy to help in whatever way I can.

Sincerely,


Marshall Sashkin
Senior Associate

175

WASHINGTON, D.C. 20208

APPENDIX C - COVER LETTER, WRITTEN QUESTIONNAIRE, AND REMINDER LETTERS

July 20, 1988

Dear N.S.O. President/Chairman:

I am a masters candidate in Human Kinetics (Sport Administration) at the University of Windsor and am in the process of collecting data for my thesis entitled:

"The Presence and Relationship of Transactional and Visionary Leadership in N.S.O. Chief Executive Officers and Presidents."

The results of this study should provide insights into the transactional and visionary leadership behaviours of National Sport Organization (N.S.O.) Chief Executive Officers (C.E.O.) and volunteer presidents and examine the C.E.O./President pairings.

It would be greatly appreciated if you could complete the enclosed "Leadership Behaviour Questionnaire - Self" and the brief demographic profile form. The completion of both sections should take you less than twenty minutes. A self-addressed envelope has been enclosed for your convenience. It is important that all questions in the enclosed forms are completed.

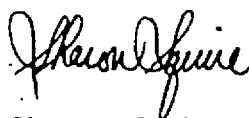
All individual responses will be kept strictly confidential. Responses from all administrators and volunteers will be pooled and analyzed only as aggregates so anonymity is assured. A research assistant will be employed to collate the data. Results of the study will be available upon request.

Thank you in advance for your assistance. Your cooperation is essential to the success of the study.

Sincerely,



Richard Morarity PhD
Professor



Sharon Squire
Graduate Student

July 20, 1988

Dear N.S.O. Executive Director/CEO:

I am a masters candidate in Human Kinetics (Sport Administration) at the University of Windsor and am in the process of collecting data for my thesis entitled:

"The Presence and Relationship of Transactional and Visionary Leadership in N.S.O. Chief Executive Officers and Presidents."

The results of this study should provide insights into the transactional and visionary leadership behaviours of N.S.O. Chief Executive Officers (C.E.O.) and volunteer presidents and examine the C.E.O./President pairings.

It would be greatly appreciated if you could complete the enclosed "Leadership Behaviour Questionnaire - Self" and the brief demographic profile form. The completion of both sections should take you less than twenty minutes. Please return the questionnaire in the enclosed envelope through the NSRC inter-office mail system. It is important that all questions in the enclosed forms are completed.

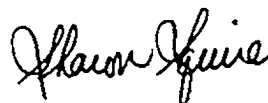
All individual responses will be kept strictly confidential. Responses from all administrators and volunteers will be pooled and analyzed only as aggregates so anonymity is assured. A research assistant will be employed to collate the data. Results of the study will be available upon request.

Thank you in advance for your assistance. Your cooperation is essential to the success of the study.

Sincerely,



Richard Morarity PhD
Professor



Sharon Squire
Graduate Student



FACULTY OF HUMAN KINETICS

DEPARTMENT OF KINESIOLOGY

August 24, 1988

Dear NSO Executive Director/CEO:

Approximately one month ago, I circulated a copy of the survey for my Master's thesis entitled:

" The Presence and Relationship of Transactional and Visionary Leadership in NSO CEO's and Presidents".

It is essential that you respond, as the total sample size is quite small. Further details regarding this study are cited in the attached letter.

Thank you in advance for your assistance. Your cooperation is essential to the success of this study.

Sincerely,

A handwritten signature in cursive script that reads "Dick Morarity".

Richard Morarity PhD
Professor

A handwritten signature in cursive script that reads "Sharon Squire".

Sharon Squire
Graduate Student



FACULTY OF HUMAN KINETICS

DEPARTMENT OF KINESIOLOGY

August 30, 1988

Dear NSO President:

Approximately one month ago, I mailed you a copy of the questionnaire for my Master's thesis entitled:

"The Presence and Relationship of Transactional and Visionary Leadership in NSO CEO's and Presidents."

A self-addressed, stamped envelope was included in the package.

It is essential that you respond, as the total sample size is quite small. If you require another copy of the questionnaire, please phone (613) 748-5672 (o), 235-6894 (h) or write me c/o 84-450 Daly Ave., Ottawa, Ontario K1N 6H5.

Thank you, in advance, for your assistance. Your cooperation is essential to the success of this study.

Sincerely,

Richard Morarity PhD
Professor

Sharon Squire
Graduate Student

THE LEADERSHIP BEHAVIOUR QUESTIONNAIRE - SELF

Below you will find a list of seventy-five statements. Each one describes a particular way a leader might or might not behave toward other people. Read each statement carefully. Although some items may appear similar, they express differences that are important in the description of your leadership behaviour. Estimate how true each statement describes you: 1- Completely True, 2 - Mostly True, 3 - Somewhat True, 4 - A Little True, and 5 - Not At All True. Circle the appropriate number for each statement. Please respond as candidly as possible.

I ...	Completely True	Mostly True	Somewhat True	A Little True	Not At All True
1. ... pay close attention to what others say when we are talking.	1	2	3	4	5
2. ... do not communicate very clearly.	1	2	3	4	5
3. ... am trustworthy.	1	2	3	4	5
4. ... show that I really care about other people.	1	2	3	4	5
5. ... am very concerned with avoiding failure.	1	2	3	4	5
6. ... make people feel that their work is meaningful.	1	2	3	4	5
7. ... try to keep at a distance from subordinates.	1	2	3	4	5
8. ... help others set specific, high goals for themselves.	1	2	3	4	5
9. ... expect people to find, on their own, ways to do their job better.	1	2	3	4	5
10. ... try to get people to work together as a team.	1	2	3	4	5
11. ... try to get across to others all of the specific details of my views.	1	2	3	4	5
12. ... make points in such clear and unusual ways that people can't possibly misunderstand or forget.	1	2	3	4	5
13. ... can be relied on to follow through commitments.	1	2	3	4	5
14. ... do not have a great deal of self-respect.	1	2	3	4	5
15. ... try to avoid taking any risks.	1	2	3	4	5
16. ... help others feel more competent in what they do.	1	2	3	4	5
17. ... concentrate on developing my argument while the other person is speaking.	1	2	3	4	5
18. ... encourage people to try their best rather than reaching for some specific "number".	1	2	3	4	5
19. ... provide information people need to effectively plan their work.	1	2	3	4	5
20. ... provide opportunities for people to get together and share ideas and information.	1	2	3	4	5
21. ... have clear set of priorities.	1	2	3	4	5
22. ... often do not notice how others feel.	1	2	3	4	5

I ...	Completely True	Mostly True	Somewhat True	A Little True	Not At All True
23. ... often find it desirable to change or alter my position.	1	2	3	4	5
24. ... focus on strengths of self and others.	1	2	3	4	5
25. ... feel most alive when I've committed myself to some project.	1	2	3	4	5
26. ... manage to avoid being stuck with the blame when there is a problem.	1	2	3	4	5
27. ... am understanding when people come to me with their problems.	1	2	3	4	5
28. ... don't expect too much of people.	1	2	3	4	5
29. ... expect people to solve their own work problems.	1	2	3	4	5
30. ... make it easier for people to work together to get the job done.	1	2	3	4	5
31. ... literally "grabs" people's attention to focus them on the important issues in a discussion.	1	2	3	4	5
32. ... communicate feeling as well as ideas.	1	2	3	4	5
33. ... avoid committing to a position, preferring to remain flexible.	1	2	3	4	5
34. ... know and can express exactly how I "fit" into this organization.	1	2	3	4	5
35. ... learn from mistakes. I do not treat errors as disasters, but as opportunities for learning.	1	2	3	4	5
36. ... have a no-nonsense approach to work.	1	2	3	4	5
37. ... show people that I'm concerned about them.	1	2	3	4	5
38. ... expect a great deal from others, in terms of performance.	1	2	3	4	5
39. ... make sure people have the resources they need to do a good job.	1	2	3	4	5
40. ... prefer to work with individuals one-on-one, rather than involving the group.	1	2	3	4	5
41. ... find it difficult to get others' attention when talking with them.	1	2	3	4	5
42. ... am able to get complicated ideas across clearly.	1	2	3	4	5
43. ... am someone in whom people can put absolute faith.	1	2	3	4	5
44. ... show little concern for other people's feelings.	1	2	3	4	5
45. ... communicate excitement about future possibilities.	1	2	3	4	5
46. ... make people feel they are really part of this organization.	1	2	3	4	5
47. ... show others that I am really listening to them.	1	2	3	4	5
48. ... help others identify clear and specific performance goals.	1	2	3	4	5
49. ... help people get the training they need to perform the job effectively.	1	2	3	4	5
50. ... rarely spend time in work group meetings.	1	2	3	4	5
51. ... what I do, as a manager, is important because of the potential impact of my actions on people's behaviour and on achieving organizational aims.	1	2	3	4	5

P.T.O.

121

I ...	Completely True	Mostly True	Somewhat True	A Little True	Not At All True
52. ... the real value of power is in being able to accomplish things that benefit both the organization and its members.	1	2	3	4	5
53. ... I have a clear idea of where I want to go with my career in this organization.	1	2	3	4	5
54. ... this organization has clearly demonstrated that it can adapt to changing conditions as needed.	1	2	3	4	5
55. ... in this organization, people believe they can influence or control important factors in the environment.	1	2	3	4	5
56. ... as an executive, one does what one must, realizing all the time that one's actions are not likely to affect people all that much.	1	2	3	4	5
57. ... some of the most significant aspects of my position are the little "perks" that demonstrate my importance to the organization and its members.	1	2	3	4	5
58. ... I can clearly explain my long-range plans and goals to others in the organization.	1	2	3	4	5
59. ... this organization has shown that it is able to set and reach important goals.	1	2	3	4	5
60. ... taking action to attain goals is valued in this organization more than maintaining things as they are now.	1	2	3	4	5
61. ... I am most satisfied in my job when I see my actions have clear cut effects in terms of what people do as a result of my efforts.	1	2	3	4	5
62. ... having power in this organization is of little concern to me except for its use in attaining goals that people do as a result of my efforts.	1	2	3	4	5
63. ... I often consider how a specific plan or tactic I have might be extended for the benefit of the organization.	1	2	3	4	5
64. ... people in this organization are very successful in dealing with and resolving problems of role conflict and ambiguity, to effectively coordinate the actions of the organization.	1	2	3	4	5
65. ... people here believe in working together collaboratively.	1	2	3	4	5
66. ... no one person can make very much of a difference in how this organization operates.	1	2	3	4	5
67. ... the advantage of having a position of authority in this organization is that one is able to get people to do as one wishes, without pointless discussion or debate.	1	2	3	4	5
68. ... I think about how the plans and programs I've developed in my own programs might be expanded for use by the organization.	1	2	3	4	5
69. ... in this organization everyone strongly believes in a set of shared basic values about how people should work together to solve common problems and reach shared goals.	1	2	3	4	5
70. ... in this organization people are expected to support their views and propositions with concrete evidence.	1	2	3	4	5
71. ... I believe that I can make a difference to this organization.	1	2	3	4	5
72. ... my influence allows me to help direct the organization toward programs and goals that are important because of their positive effects.	1	2	3	4	5

I ...	Completely True	Mostly True	Somewhat True	A Little True	Not At All True
73. ... this organization operates very well, in terms of adapting to changes, attaining objectives, and coordinating the work activities of individuals and groups.	1	2	3	4	5
74. ... it is important to people in this organization that we maintain our shared sense of what is important and how the organization should operate.	1	2	3	4	5
75... many of the plans I have in mind for this organization extend over a period of ten years or more.	1	2	3	4	5

DEMOGRAPHIC PROFILE

N.S.O.: _____

N.S.O. SPORT RECOGNITION SYSTEM CLASSIFICATION(ie.1-4): _____

OLYMPIC SPORT: _____ NON-OLYMPIC SPORT: _____

POSITION/TITLE: _____

PROFESSIONAL ADMINISTRATOR: _____ VOLUNTEER: _____

SEX: MALE: _____ FEMALE: _____

If you are a professional administrator, how long have you been employed as a professional sport administrator?

less than 1 year _____	6 - 8 years _____
1 - 3 years _____	more than 8 years _____
4 - 5 years _____	

If you are a volunteer, how long have you been involved in the organization?

less than 1 year _____	6 - 8 years _____
1 - 3 years _____	more than 8 years _____
4 - 5 years _____	

On average, how many hours per week do you spend working on activities related to your sport?

0-5 _____	21-25 _____	41-45 _____
6-10 _____	26-30 _____	46-50 _____
11-15 _____	31-35 _____	more than 50 _____
16-20 _____	36-40 _____	

Do you believe that your sport is run:

More by the professional staff	_____
More by the volunteers	_____
About equally between the staff and the volunteers	_____

In which of the following age categories do you belong?

18-24 _____	36-40 _____	51-55 _____
25-30 _____	41-45 _____	56-60 _____
31-35 _____	46-50 _____	Over 60 _____

Please indicate your highest level of formal education.

Secondary School	_____
Community College or CEGEP	_____
University:	
Bachelors	_____
Masters	_____
PhD	_____
Other (ie. certified accountant)	_____

Thank you for completing this questionnaire. Please return the questionnaire in the enclosed self-addressed envelope.

APPENDIX D - LBQ EVALUATION KEY

1985 EDITION

TRANSACTIONAL KEY - SUM OF INDICES 7, 8, 9, AND 10

This is the total Transactional Key

90-100	Excellent
75-89	Good
60-74	Average
45-59	Low
30-44	Very Low

Task Key - Sum of Indices 8 and 9

45-50	Excellent
37-44	Good
23-36	Average
15-22	Low
10-14	Very Low

Relation Key - Sum of Indices 7 and 10

45-50	Excellent
37-44	Good
23-36	Average
15-22	Low
10-14	Very Low

1988 EDITION

VISIONARY LEADERSHIP KEYS

VISIONARY 88D - TOTAL KEY - SUM (i) (ii) and (iii) below

226-250	Excellent
201-225	High
176-200	Average
146-175	Low
50-145	Very Low

(i) Visionary 88A-Leadership Characteristics Score - Sum of Indices 11, 12, and 13

68-75	Excellent
60-67	Good
51-59	Average
42-50	Low
15-41	Very Low

(ii) Visionary 88B-Culture Building Score - Sum of Indices 14 and 15

48-50	Excellent
43-47	Good
37-42	Average
29-36	Low
10-28	Very Low

(iii) Visionary 88C-Leadership Behaviour Score - Sum of Indices 1, 2, 3, 4, and 5

113-125	Excellent
102-112	High
92-101	Average
75-91	Low
25-74	Very Low

INDICE KEYS

TRANSACTIONAL INDICES

Indice 7 = Total of questions	7	(Col. 22)
	17	(Col. 32)
	27	(Col. 42)
	37	(Col. 52)
	47	(Col. 62)
Indice 8 = Total of questions	8	(Col. 23)
	18	(Col. 33)
	28	(Col. 43)
	38	(Col. 53)
	48	(Col. 63)
Indice 9 = Total of questions	9	(Col. 24)
	19	(Col. 34)
	29	(Col. 44)
	38	(Col. 54)
	48	(Col. 64)
Indice 10 = Total of questions	10	(Col. 25)
	20	(Col. 35)
	30	(Col. 45)
	40	(Col. 55)
	50	(Col. 65)

VISIONARY INDICES

Indice 1 = Total of questions	1	(Col. 16)
	11	(Col. 26)
	21	(Col. 36)
	31	(Col. 46)
	41	(Col. 56)
Indice 2 = Total of questions	2	(Col. 17)
	12	(Col. 27)
	22	(Col. 37)
	32	(Col. 47)
	42	(Col. 48)
Indice 3 = Total of questions	3	(Col. 18)
	13	(Col. 28)
	23	(Col. 38)
	33	(Col. 48)
	43	(Col. 58)
Indice 4 = Total of questions	4	(Col. 19)
	14	(Col. 29)
	24	(Col. 39)
	34	(Col. 49)
	44	(Col. 59)
Indice 5 = Total of questions	5	(Col. 20)
	15	(Col. 30)
	25	(Col. 40)
	35	(Col. 50)
	45	(Col. 60)
Indice 6 = Total of questions	6	(Col. 21)
	16	(Col. 31)
	26	(Col. 41)
	36	(Col. 51)
	46	(Col. 61)

Indice 11 - Total of Questions	51	(Col. 66)
	56	(Col. 71)
	61	(Col. 76)
	66	(Col. 05 -Line 2)
	71	(Col. 10 -Line 2)
Indice 12 - Total of Questions	52	(Col. 67)
	57	(Col. 72)
	62	(Col. 01)- Line 2)
	67	(Col. 06)- Line 2)
	72	(Col. 11)- Line 2)
Indice 13 - Total of Questions	53	(Col. 68)
	58	(Col. 73)
	63	(Col. 02 - Line 2)
	68	(Col. 07 - Line 2)
	75	(Col. 14 - Line 2)
Indice 14- Total of Questions	54	(Col. 69)
	59	(Col. 74)
	64	(Col. 03 - Line 2)
	69	(Col. 08 - Line 2)
	73	(Col. 12 - Line 2)
Indice 15 - Total of Questions	55	(Col. 70)
	60	(Col. 75)
	65	(Col. 04 - Line 2)
	70	(Col. 09 - Line 2)
	74	(Col. 13 - Line 2)

APPENDIX E

Interview Questionnaire

Name of Interviewee: _____

Association : _____

Sport Classification: _____ Role: _____

Date: _____

Introduction:

As you will recall, I circulated a questionnaire entitled the Leadership Behaviour Questionnaire, during the summer of 1988. The purpose of this questionnaire was to examine the presence and characteristics of Visionary and Transactional Leadership in NSO Chief Executive Officers and Presidents.

Transactional Leaders work within the organization's culture and make only minor adjustments in the organization's mission, structure and human resource management.

Visionary Leaders create the organization's culture. They create a vision for the organization, mobilize the organization to accept and work towards achieving the vision, and institutionalize the changes over time.

The interview should take approximately 20 minutes.

Initial Statement:

The purpose of this interview is to obtain feedback on:

- (1) the quantitative results (questionnaire);
- (2) whether it is desirable to have a visionary leader as a Chief Executive Officer or President of an NSO; and
- (3) whether it is possible for a visionary leader to exist in the NSO environment.

Reinforcing Statement:

You are working as a Chief Executive Officer/President in the NSO environment and therefore I appreciate the opportunity to interview you and record your observations and feelings on the topic of Visionary Leadership.

Your responses to the following questions will remain anonymous.

Questions:

1. What do you believe are the salient characteristics of the most effective NSO Chief Executive Officers?
2. What do you believe are the salient characteristics of the most effective NSO Presidents?
3. Based on your experiences, if a visionary leader is present in an NSO, is that individual a President or CEO?
4. In the current NSO environment:
 - (1) Is it desirable for an NSO to have a visionary leader?
 - (2) In general, should that visionary leader be a President or CEO?
5. On the Leadership Behaviour Questionnaire, the Presidents, in general, particularly on Visionary Behaviour Key, scored higher than the CEO's. Comment?
6. Given the internal environment (ie. organizational structure) of your NSO, is it possible for a visionary leader to exist?

Could they exist as either a CEO and or President?

The results of the LBQ indicated that the Director Generals scored higher on the visionary indices than the Executive Directors. Comments.

7. Given the external environment (ie. Sport Canada, COA, Dublin Inquiry) of your NSO, can a visionary leader exist?
8. Given the internal and external environments of NSO's in general, can visionary leaders exist?
9. Do you believe that the NSO's Sport Classification would affect the presence of visionary leadership.

The results of the LBQ indicated that Category 4 sports scored consistently lower on the visionary leadership scales.

10. Do you believe that the classification of a sport as olympic or non-olympic would affect the presence of visionary leadership?

The results of the LBQ indicated that when olympic/non-olympic classification was considered, the non-olympic respondents scored higher than the olympic respondents on the cultural leadership components. Comments.

11. Do you believe that the sex of the CEO or President would affect the presence of Visionary Leadership?

The results of the LBQ indicated that males scored higher than females on the indices related to organizational leadership and cultural leadership. Comments?

11. Looking five years into the future, will any trends occur which will affect the presence of visionary leaders in the NSO environment?

Thank you for your time and input. A summary of the results will be available upon request.

Leader Behavior Questionnaire

Norms

Since the first general publication of the LBQ, norms have been collected on a wide range of managerial/professional groups. The tables that follow show the averages for each scale and, where available, for the three cluster scores (Visionary Leadership Behavior, Visionary Leadership Characteristics, and Visionary Culture Building) and the Visionary Leadership Total Score. Most of the data presented here was obtained using the earlier versions of the LBQ, so those data do not include the current scales six through ten, representing the Visionary Leadership Characteristics score and the Visionary Culture Building score. Included with all of these data is the number of individuals responding and whether the data represent self-ratings or ratings by others of a particular individual. Most data sets also give the standard deviation for each scale, a measure of how variable the scores are, how wide a range they cover.

		LBQ Scales						
Sample	N		1	2	3	4	5	VLB
I	S	18	X	16.4	17.6	19.3	20.7	18.1
			sd	1.65	2.57	2.27	2.33	2.75
	O	36	X	18.2	18.5	18.2	20.3	15.9
			sd	1.98	4.00	3.24	3.21	2.33
II	S	21	X	18.3	18.6	18.9	21.4	19.2
			sd	1.83	2.34	1.91	1.84	2.31
	O	42	X	18.5	20.0	19.7	21.9	18.1
			sd	1.89	2.83	2.00	2.11	2.55
III	S	24	X	18.0	19.2	20.5	22.0	18.5
			sd	1.91	2.41	1.21	2.36	1.59
IV	S	30	X	17.3	19.2	20.2	21.0	18.9
			sd	2.23	2.51	2.09	2.36	2.26
	O	30	X	18.0	21.2	20.3	22.6	19.1
			sd	2.04	2.86	2.81	2.61	2.45
*	S	72	X	17.3	18.8	20.1	21.2	18.5
			sd	2.06	2.55	1.93	2.38	2.19
	O	108	X	18.5	19.8	19.4	21.6	17.7
			sd	2.00	3.43	2.83	2.81	2.93

- I: Mid-level managers in a rural electric utility
 II: "Fast track" plant managers in an international manufacturing organization (consumer and industrial products)
 III: Executive program MBA students, large urban university, southeast United States
 IV: MBA students, evening/part-time program, large metropolitan area, mid-Atlantic U.S.
 *: Combined data, all above samples, except "self" excludes II

				LBQ Scales					VLB
Sample		N		1	2	3	4	5	
V	S	7	X	18.0	18.4	21.0	21.6	19.1	98.1
			sd	1.82	1.72	1.41	1.81	1.86	4.18
	O	16	X	19.1	19.0	19.0	21.4	17.3	95.8
			sd	1.53	1.94	1.93	1.48	1.42	5.98
VI	S	11	X	18.1	19.4	20.4	21.1	19.6	98.6
			sd	2.17	1.63	2.20	2.17	2.25	6.80
VII	S	16	X	18.4	19.2	20.2	22.6	19.6	99.9
			sd	1.93	1.91	1.87	1.71	1.86	5.74
VIII	S	15	X	18.6	19.8	18.3	19.2	19.4	95.3
			sd	1.88	2.46	2.02	2.46	2.53	7.84
IX	O	12	X	19.7	20.5	19.3	21.9	17.9	99.3
			sd	1.80	2.36	2.43	1.66	1.71	
**	S	121	X	17.7	19.0	20.0	21.2	18.9	96.8
			sd	2.0.	2.3.	1.9.	2.1.	2.1.	
	O	136	X	18.7	19.8	19.3	21.6	17.7	97.1
			sd	1.9.	3.2.	2.7.	2.6.	2.6.	

Key to Samples:

V: Senior managers, electric utility firms, diverse organizations
VI: Senior level U.S. government agency program managers (GS14+)
VII: Senior level U.S. government agency program managers (GS13+)
VIII: Mid-level managers and engineers, large industrial manufacturing organization in India
IX: U.S. military officers, staff training professionals
**: All data from samples I through IX combined, except "self" data from sample II

Sample	N	LBQ Scales					VLB		
		1	2	3	4	5			
X	S	80	X	18.5	18.6	21.2	21.0	19.6	98.9
			sd	2.24	2.99	1.76	2.60	2.04	
	O	157	X	19.4	20.3	21.4	21.7	19.1	101.9
			sd	1.81	2.54	2.43	2.29	2.76	
XI	S	52	X	17.5	17.4	21.0	20.2	17.9	94.0
			sd	2.19	2.77	2.37	2.49	2.41	9.02
	O	203	X	18.6	19.1	20.7	20.8	17.9	97.1
			sd	2.30	2.78	2.34	2.54	2.82	9.25
XII	O	264	X	17.9	17.7	18.8	19.8	16.5	90.7
			sd	2.52	4.09	3.66	3.66	3.13	14.4
XIII	S	183	X	18.3	18.6	20.7	21.9	19.6	99.2
			sd	1.80	2.38	1.91	2.02	2.34	6.92
XIV	S	70	X	18.1	18.2	20.2	21.2	18.5	96.7
			sd	1.86	2.57	1.94	2.49	2.23	7.23
XV	S	30	X	19.3	19.7	20.3	20.8	18.9	99.3
			sd	1.76	2.00	2.09	2.27	1.74	5.36
XVI	S	30	X	17.8	17.0	18.0	17.7	16.2	86.8
			sd	2.07	2.61	2.62	3.09	3.14	11.03

Key to Samples:

- X: Top executives, large multi-national oil company
- XI: Mid- to lower-level managers and professionals, large multi-national oil company
- XII: Cross-section of all employees, consumer product manufacturing firm, southwest U.S. (part of national firm)
- XIII: Top executives (paid and unpaid), large, decentralized voluntary community service organization, U.S. (sample of approximately 20%)
- XIV: Top executives (paid and unpaid), large decentralized voluntary community service organization, U.S. (small sample; no overlap with XIII)
- XV: Principals of high-performing public high schools, Southern California
- XVI: Principals of low-performing public high schools, Southern California

LBQ Scales											LBQ Scales				LBQ Scales		
Sample	N	1	2	3	4	5	VLB	6	7	8	VLG	9	10	VCB	Total		
XVII	S	18 X 18.1	19.1	20.3	20.9	20.3	98.7	19.1	18.9	16.6	54.6	20.6	20.0	40.6			
	sd	1.92	2.54	2.91	1.88	2.49	8.44	2.59	2.24	3.58	6.37	2.26	1.91	3.26			
0		93 X 17.9	18.9	18.7	21.0	18.7	95.2	18.6	18.4	17.7	54.7	19.6	19.3	38.9			
	sd	2.29	3.64	3.28	2.75	3.16	12.4	2.99	2.89	3.41	6.87	3.78	2.96	6.25			
XVIII	S	155 X 18.3	18.8	20.7	21.5	19.7	98.0	21.2	19.4	20.7	61.2	21.3	19.4	40.7			
	sd	1.70	2.40	2.37	1.99	2.71	7.87	2.30	2.50	2.67	5.81	2.52	2.59	4.28			
XIX	S	55 X 18.0	17.6	20.3	20.7	20.7	97.3	20.4	19.9	20.3	60.7	20.5	20.5	41.0			
	sd	1.83	2.27	1.90	2.03	2.09	6.79	2.82	2.50	2.03	5.45	2.26	2.25	3.82			
XX	S	67 X 17.8	18.7	19.7	21.2	18.9	96.4	19.4	18.2	19.2	56.7	19.8	19.1	39.0			
	sd	2.09	2.73	2.02	2.52	2.78	8.87	2.81	2.80	2.66	5.50	3.23	2.43	4.71			
***	S	277 X 18.1	18.6	20.4	21.3	19.7	98.0	20.6	19.2	20.2	60.1	20.8	19.5	40.4			
	sd	1.83	2.50	2.25	2.16	2.67	7.98	2.65	2.63	2.63	5.98	2.72	2.54	4.37			
XXI	S	39 X 19.0	18.0	20.5	20.4	18.4	97.0	19.8	19.4	17.9	57.3	19.6	19.4	39.0			
	sd	2.63	2.90	2.06	3.06	2.85	10.38	2.75	2.46	3.69	6.45	2.84	2.41	4.61	17.98		

Key to Samples:

XVII: Directors of residence halls, residential university, northeast U.S.

XVIII: Adult educators, college and community college faculty, various institutions of higher education, south central U.S.

XIX: Community educators, national sample

XX: Public school principals, south central U.S.

***: Samples XVIII, XIX, and XX, combined data.

XXI: Managers and professionals, national telecommunication services organization

LBQ Scales: 1 Focused Leadership; 2 Communication Leadership; 3 Trust Leadership; 4 Respectful Leadership; 5 Risk Leadership; 6 Bottom-line Leadership; 7 Empowered Leadership; 8 Long-term Leadership; 9 Organizational Leadership; 10 Cultural Leadership

N refers to the number of respondents in the sample

S = LBQ-Self data

0 = LBQ-Other data

X = mean score

sd = standard deviation

VLB = Visionary Leadership Behavior Score

VLG = Visionary Leadership Characteristics Score

VCB = Visionary Culture Building Score

Total = Total Visionary Leadership Score

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